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ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF LIBRARIANSHIP

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TRUSTS AND FOUNDATIONS: A SELECT GUIDE

ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF LIBRARIANSHIP

EDITED BY
THOMAS LANDAU A.L.A.

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INTRODUCTION

In the course of a discussion I had with Mr. Collison several years ago we reviewed the professional literature available at that time and he mentioned in the course of the conversation that a comprehensive quick reference book, covering all aspects of librarianship, might prove very useful.

After discussing the project informally with many colleagues I decided on the present form of a simple alphabetic arrangement in the style of an encyclopaedia with articles and entries ranging from a few words defining a term to signed monographs on the more important subjects. In order to avoid an index, the entries are arranged under specific headings and, where necessary, cross references are provided.

The scope of subjects treated follows fairly closely the syllabus of the Library Association professional examinations. Terms covered were first taken from the *A.A. Code*, *A.L.A. Glossary*, *Librarian's Glossary*, etc. and a few works associated with printing, paper and allied industries. Many definitions could not be improved upon and in such cases the source is given at the end of the entry. This first selection was enlarged by a general literature search and *Library science abstracts*, *Library Association record*, etc. were systematically scanned. The period covered ranged roughly over the last ten years.

The publishers and I would like to express our particular gratitude to the American Library Association for allowing us the free use of so many definitions from the *A. L. A. Glossary*.

The next step in the development of the Encyclopaedia was the selection of subject specialists and sub-editors in the major fields. In this also Mr. Collison gave me his invaluable advice. I acknowledge with gratitude the co-operation of many colleagues who gave of their time and experience by providing articles in their specialized fields.

In order to maintain a unity of form and conception it was found that some fairly well-defined fields should be compiled and edited by one person and my particular thanks are due to the following sub-editors: Mr. G. F. H. Blunt (binding), Mr. C. W. R. Francis (library furniture), Mr. E. R. J. Hawkins (classification), Mr. A. R. Hewitt (library law), Mr. R. N. Lock (paper and printing), Mr. W. R. Maidment (loan methods), Mr. E. L. J. Smith (cataloguing), Mr. J. W. Thirsk (documentary reproduction) and Mrs. K. Bourton who very kindly checked the bibliographical references. A list of all contributors will be found on page vii.

In presenting this book to the profession I hope to fill the need for a simple and comprehensive reference tool which is easy to use and of interest to student and experienced librarian. It is also hoped to fill gaps and enlarge the scope in future editions on the the same co-operative basis which has made the present work possible.

London, 1957

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A

Abbreviated catalogue card A catalogue card bearing an added entry giving less information than the main entry.

Abridgment A shortened or curtailed version of a book, retaining the essential character and theme of the original; an epitome.

Abstract A brief summary that gives the essential points of a book, pamphlet or article.

Abstract bulletin A printed or mimeographed bulletin containing abstracts of currently published periodical articles, pamphlets, etc., issued by a special library and distributed regularly to its clientele (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Abstraction The process of separating and grouping in classification.

Accessions methods and records

Accessions records The purpose of an accessions register is to record officially the existence of books in the library stock, usually in the order in which they are added. Provision is made for details of accession number, cost, vendor or other source, department or branch to which each item is disposed, and dates of addition, binding and withdrawal. Bibliographical details are reduced to a minimum. The accessions register is widely used for analysis of statistics relating to expenditure in each main class or by departments.

The traditional ledger, so long used by public libraries is not so common to-day, and indeed the whole process of accessioning has been so adapted by each library to its own particular circumstances that no single method is in general use. Efficiency requires that purely clerical processes be reduced as far as possible, and in some libraries it has been decided that the accessions register can be abolished altogether.

The running number given to every book added to stock provides a link between the book itself and the bookseller's invoice. This may be necessary to satisfy auditors that books purchased have actually been added to stock.

The accession number also serves to link the book with the catalogue (or shelf register) and the charging system, and distinguishes between copies of a book when there is more than one.

A modification of the running number system is one whereby a separate sequence of numbers is kept for each main class (prefixed by a letter) the numbers being used again when books are withdrawn. The primary purpose of this method is to facilitate rapid stock taking, but since books cannot be stocked in invoice order the link between accession number and invoice is lost and must be provided in some other way.

The application of punched cards to library routine has produced yet another form of accessions register. Libraries adopting this method use the actual punched card as a stock record (in numerical order) writing on it details of author and title, plus other information required for statistical purposes in coded form. A punching machine makes small holes in the cards corresponding by their position to the figures required to be encoded. Other machines file batches of cards into numerical order, or make tabulations showing totals of expenditure by classes, or by any desired analysis.

The simplest accessions register is a file of invoices arranged in the order in which they were dealt with, each bearing a record of stock numbers allotted to the books listed on it. In practice the library may be unable to retain the actual invoices, and copies would be used instead. The logical development of this method is the abolition even of this file, and a record of invoice details and accession numbers used substituted. In neither of these methods, however, is there adequate facility for statistical analysis. This must be done independently of the accessions record, either by hand or by punched cards. Once the required tabulations have been extracted the punched cards can be discarded.

Other associated records

Ordering A copy is normally kept of orders

ACCIDENT

to booksellers and by marking off items as received a record of outstanding books is maintained. The disadvantage is that there is no consolidated file of books on order and duplication may arise. A partial solution in the case of British books is to mark off each title ordered in the *British National Bibliography*. Many libraries use *B.N.B.* numbers for ordering purposes, and with the addition of symbols for branch and copy numbers, they can also be used as accession numbers or for charging. Libraries having a separate accessions department usually maintain a separate order file on cards which may be subsequently used as shelf-cards.

Shelf-cards These provide a record of book-stock at each service point, in classified order. They are necessary when the catalogue does not give locations or accession numbers, and they provide a link between the catalogue and the charging system (when accession numbers are used for charging).

Continuations and serials When standing orders are placed for annuals, yearbooks or works in progress, a record of receipt is kept, especially when the catalogue has an 'open entry,' i.e. each issue is not catalogued separately. Details required are title, source, price, date of receipt, number of copies and their allocation. A system of coloured signals is of value to indicate overdue titles.

Benge, R. C. *Stock records in public libraries*. 1953. (N.W. Polytechnic Library School Occasional Papers, No. 2.)

Butcher, S. J. 'The acquisition of books.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1952, 54, 259.

Callander, T. E. 'Punched card systems; their application to library technique.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1946, 48, 171.

Tauber, M. F. *Technical services in libraries*. Columbia Univ. Pr., 1954.

O. W. K.

Accident (in classification) See **PREDICABLES**.

Accounts and audit See **PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW**.

Acoustics The science of applied acoustics is largely concerned with improving the quality of music and the human voice for concert halls and theatres; for libraries, however, we are concerned with reducing and damping sound

reverberation, i.e. with the elimination of noise. There are three main problems: 1. To design the interior of the building so that quiet and noisy activities are separated. 2. To construct the quiet rooms of a library, especially reading rooms, so that they have a minimum of reverberation or echo. 3. Where the original design was acoustically bad, to improve it as effectively and as cheaply as possible.

Problem No. 1, the separation of quiet and noisy activities, is one of architectural planning. Acoustical problems will be partially avoided from the start if reading rooms are located away from noisy lending and information activities, and are not allowed to be a passage way. The problem is discussed in Wheeler and Githens *The American public library building*, 1941, pp. 388-9.

A number of central public libraries in Great Britain for this reason have been designed with the lending department on the ground floor and the reference rooms secluded in quietness on the floor above. Examples are St. Marylebone and Hendon in London, Huddersfield and Sheffield. This problem is discussed in Ashburner's *Modern public libraries*, 1946, p. 70.

On problem No. 2, the construction of quiet rooms, it must be emphasized that the acoustic treatment of reading rooms is essential, though often neglected.

Tests have shown that noise reduces the efficiency of the brain worker by causing him to use up more energy; the reduction of noise increases speed of work, especially of the faster workers, and reduces errors. A constant bombardment of noises irritates the nervous system and impairs concentration. There are certain inevitable noises in reading rooms, such as in moving books or shutting doors, which can be greatly damped by acoustic treatment.

Noise is increased or reduced (i.e. reverberation reduced) by (a) the shape of the room; (b) the materials of the walls, ceilings and floors, which must not be hard reflecting surfaces, but should be to some extent soft and sound-absorbent; (c) the penetration of sound from room to room, to prevent which the walls may have to be sound-insulated.

Problem No. 3, the improvement of acoustics in inadequately designed libraries is one

which can seldom be completely solved, since it is a matter of 'patching up'; each library presents an individual problem, which may be tackled by erecting partitions or by the acoustic treatment of inner room surfaces (See *B.R.S. Digest* listed below). An example is the library of the Royal Institute of British Architects, London, where the reading room ought to have been designed as separate from the lending activities, but where an improvement was attempted by the acoustical treatment of the ceilings.

Bagenal, H. & Wood, A. *Planning for good acoustics*. 1931.

Knudsen, V. O. *Architectural Acoustics*. N.Y., 1932 (esp. § 164 Museums & Libraries).

'Sound absorbent treatments,' *Build. Res. Sta. Dig.*, No. 36 (rev.) 1954.

Humphreys, H. R. "Recent devts. in sound absorbents" in *Architects' Journal*, 1951, Jan. 11, 54-6.

Davidson, D. M. J. 'Sound insulation of floors,' in his *Floors and floorings*. 1939.

Acting edition An edition of a play that gives the text as used in stage production, often in a particular production with entrances and exits, and other stage business (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Adams Report See **LIBRARY COOPERATION**.

Adaptation A book which has been re-written or re-modelled, usually to fit it for some special purpose or for a class of reader different from that for which the author originally wrote, e.g. Eleanor Farjeon's *Tales from Chaucer* (a re-written version of Chaucer's *Canterbury tales* for children). An adaptation is normally to be entered in a catalogue under the name of the original author as main entry heading (A.-A.: 17; Cutter: 17), and added entry made under the name of the adapter. Where the adaptation has been so freely made as to bear little relation to the original work, or if the adaptation has become a classic in its own right, A.L.A. 2nd ed., 22B, allows the main entry to be made under the adapter, e.g. Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*.

Added class entry An added entry in the classified catalogue necessitated by a book dealing with two or more distinct subjects. The book itself may be filed at only one place

on the shelves, normally the classification number for

- (a) the subject dealt with most fully, or
- (b) that which comprises the largest portion of the book, or
- (c) where each is treated equally, the one which occurs first, or
- (d) that which is most important to the particular library.

The main entry for such a book is filed at the shelf classification number. Added class entries are made for the subsidiary subjects and filed at the classification numbers representing those subjects.

E.g. *Main entry*

287 Lawson, John.

Methodism and Catholicism: candid comment upon the present project for "full communion" between the Church of England and the Free Churches. London, S.P.C.K., 1954.

51 p. 18½ cm.

Added class entry

283.42 Lawson, John.

Methodism and Catholicism, 1954 (shelved at 287).

To be distinguished from Analytical Subject Entry (q.v.).

Added copies Duplicate copies of the same edition of a title already in the library's book-stock.

Added edition A copy of a book already in the stock of a library, but in a different edition.

Added entry A secondary catalogue entry, i.e. any other than the main entry. Added entries may be made for editors, translators, titles, series, subjects, etc., and usually display less information than the main entry, subtitles, annotation and all or part of the imprint and collation being omitted. Where unit cards are used an added entry is a duplicate of the main entry but with the addition of a special heading for editor, translator, etc. To be distinguished from a Reference (q.v.).

Added title-page In a book possessing more than one title-page, that complementary to the one chosen for the construction of the main catalogue entry. The added title-page may precede or follow the main title-page,

ADDITIONS LIST

and may be more general (e.g. a series title-page) or equally general (e.g. an engraved title-page or a title-page in another language).

The choice of title-page for the main entry transcript is governed by definite rulings in the chief Western catalogue codes, which agree substantially:

1. Where the title-pages are of different categories of generality that which applies directly to the book being catalogued is used for the main entry transcript, the other(s) being given appropriate added entry (e.g. series entry) or mentioned in a note.
2. When title-pages are equally general and in the same language the first is chosen when one follows the other, the second when they face each other.
3. A printed title-page usually takes preference over an engraved one, and always when it bears a later date.
4. If the title-pages are in different languages, and the text in but one language, that which is in the language of the text is preferred. When both title-pages and text are in more than one language, a title-page in the original language of the work is preferred.
5. Where the preference above would lead to the choice of a language employing characters which cannot satisfactorily be reproduced, that in roman or gothic characters may be adopted.

Additions list A list of books recently added to a library's stock. The arrangement of the list may be alphabetical, classified or in accession order, and may be complete or selective according to its purpose.

Adjustable Shelf A moveable shelf the vertical position of which may be changed at need to accommodate books of varying heights.

Administration Library administration, or management in the field of libraries, can be examined from two points of view, the theoretical and the practical. Obviously there has been some form of administrative practice in libraries from the earliest times and much has been written about it. Little, however, has been written about the theory or principles of library administration. In 1938 the librarians

and teachers of administration attending a conference on 'Current issues in library administration' at the University of Chicago were surprised to find that there was not one comprehensive treatise on library administration 'in terms of the general divisions of the subject.' This is still the case today, despite the growing interest in the subject and the work of Butler, Joeckel, Leigh, Martin and other American librarians and library school teachers. Much less has been done in Great Britain. For more than half a century J. D. Brown's *Manual of library economy*, now in its 6th ed., has been regarded as a standard textbook on 'library administration.' As its title indicates, it is concerned solely with practice. Its purpose to-day is presumably to keep the student and practising librarian in touch with the latest developments in public librarianship. No publication, revised so infrequently (the 6th ed. is now seven years old) could hope to achieve this and there would seem to be little point in continuing the *Manual* in its present form. Other less ambitious publications, starting with Headicar's *Manual of library organization* (1941), have appeared in Great Britain in recent years. In no case, however, has any real attempt been made to consider the application of administrative theory to libraries. This has not even been attempted in the field of public libraries, with which almost all the British writers on the subject are mainly concerned.

Evidence of the confusion that exists in the minds of librarians on both sides of the Atlantic as to the nature and value of a study of library administration can be found in the extraordinary content of some of the courses of professional training in the subject. These courses, drawn up in the main, by librarians with little or no training in administrative theory, consist all too frequently of 'little more than omnibus groupings of more or less unrelated topics which do not fit into any of the more clearly defined courses' (Joeckel). Some of the more progressive library schools in the United States do now provide courses in the principles of administration and on the application to libraries of administrative theory. Under the present British system of professional education experiments of this nature are scarcely feasible.

This state of affairs is surprising in the library world of the mid-twentieth century. Every librarian now regards himself as an administrator; many indeed proclaim themselves as administrators above all else. The early history of libraries is rich in the names of librarians who were distinguished scholars and bibliophiles. As librarians they had a simple and well-defined task—to conserve the literary material in their charge and make it available, under proper safeguards, to the equally well-defined group of people who were privileged to have access to it. The purely passive 'administration' of such a collection, given adequate physical quarters and staff to deal with the few technical problems involved, made little demand on 'the librarian as administrator.' For this and other reasons, if he was to be regarded as anything more than a mere keeper, he would in most cases establish his claim to be regarded as a 'bookman,' occasionally with some justification. Librarianship meant little more than this right up to the mid-nineteenth century, despite the efforts of men like James Kirkwood and Samuel Brown in Scotland, who had realized the potentialities of the library as an active agency in the fields of education, self-improvement and moral reform. Legislation in the United Kingdom, the United States and elsewhere established the publicly supported, publicly accessible library from 1850 onwards. The voluntary and frequently temporary was replaced by the statutory and what has proved to be permanent. Although progress was slow everywhere at first the next eighty years saw a tremendous development in the public library movement, resulting in almost universal coverage in the United Kingdom and the Scandinavian countries and an eighty per cent coverage in the United States. Libraries themselves grew in size and complexity and this was as true of many of the older national, university and special libraries as of the new public or popular libraries. To-day indeed it is the academic and special libraries that are growing most rapidly and for which the future would seem to hold the greatest promise.

It is not perhaps surprising that in the midst of these tremendous developments and growing responsibilities of an active nature, all demanding new techniques, the British and

American librarian of the past hundred years has had little time to spare for administrative theory and principles. Danton, writing in the *Library Quarterly* in 1934, complained that 'our professional literature has been concerned with nearly everything under the sun except the philosophical principles which underlie library activities.' Two years earlier in the *Library Journal* Joeckel had pointed out that 'the librarian himself, always a pragmatist, has been much too busy doing things to take time for an objective view of himself and his work. The great responsibilities confronting him on every hand have left little leisure for mere contemplation as to the meaning of what he has been doing.' Many librarians, newly appointed to administrative positions of great responsibility in which, as administrators, they will be called upon to take decisions and accept responsibility for them, must have regretted that their predecessors had not had a little leisure in which to consider why they were making certain decisions! The pragmatic basis of library administration to-day will almost certainly ensure that many of their own innovations will later be viewed with a similar degree of alarm and despondency by their successors. One consequence is that an undue amount of what the librarian is pleased to regard as administration is no more than the introduction of new techniques and procedures, based on his own 'hunches' or those of the more vocal members of his staff, or on a form of honest plagiarism of things seen in other libraries. The hunch may be the shrewd opinion of the born administrator (it is most unlikely that, as a librarian, he will have had any formal training in administration) and the 'borrowed' procedure may be ideally suited to meet the particular needs of his own library, but the risks involved in such a hit-and-miss policy are too obvious to be elaborated. It has been said that 'a good executive acts quickly and sometimes he's right.' It would seem to be at least permissible to suggest that a much more serious attempt to measure administrative practice against the principles of good administration than is at present found in library or library school might increase the chances of the administrator being right. As a footnote to this, it should also be borne in mind that in no British library or group of

ADMINISTRATION

libraries is there a research department, with appropriately qualified research staff, in which the data that would seem to be essential to the library administrator can be brought together and analysed. Neither the Library Association nor Aslib can attempt more than a mere skeleton service here. More has been done in recent years in the United States, mainly through state library agencies and library schools. One looks forward to developments on similar lines in Great Britain, but we have first to show the central government that libraries are sufficiently important to justify the creation of a department at Whitehall and, secondly, we must greatly strengthen the library schools before they can begin to consider making a contribution to the study of administrative problems in libraries.

Many attempts have been made to define administration, to analyse administrative activity into its various elements, and to lay down principles of administration. The writings of Henri Fayol, F. W. Taylor, Mary Parker Follett, Lyndall Urwick, Luther Gulick, L. D. White and others have been carefully studied during the past forty years, particularly by the public administrator. It is indeed the public administrator, the manager in the area of public services, who has contributed most to the study of administrative theory. The public library, as part of the public services in most countries in the world, may have been expected to offer its contribution. That it has not done so, although regrettable, is not surprising. Miles and Martin, writing in 1941 of the scant attention paid to the public library by students of public administration, pointed to 'the actual or mental barriers' behind which the librarian operates, resulting in his department being too frequently regarded as separated from the main flow of local government services. This can happen and does happen just as easily in the university, the college, the school, the government department, the industrial or research organization. Too often is the library regarded as a 'thing apart,' even as a non-essential part of the whole endeavour of the authority, institution or organization. Librarians themselves are largely to blame for this state of affairs. With their heads down amidst their technical problems, so frequently regarded as

trivial by the outsider, they have seldom bothered to look up to see where they are going. They have, in consequence, all too often failed to make their real objectives clear to their employers, their users or the community at large. They would rightly resent the cynical view of many outsiders that 'the library is a labyrinth, strategically designed and subtle in expanding its functions chiefly to increase the importance and remuneration of librarians' (a view considered by Professor Dimock at the University of Chicago Conference, 1938), but they cannot be surprised to find, on those rare occasions when they do try to see where they are going, that they have not really gone very far. This is especially of the British public librarian to-day, despite apparently reassuring statistics which still suggest progress. He would probably be happier about these figures were they more than merely quantitative.

L. D. White has suggested that the term 'principle' as applied to administration should mean 'a hypothesis so adequately tested by observation and/or experiment that it may intelligently be put forward as a guide to action, or as a means of understanding.' It has been on this basis that several authorities have enunciated 'principles of administration' (Henri Fayol's fourteen principles were put forward forty years ago and have influenced most of his successors). This is not the place to consider these principles, but it is suggested that 'the librarian as administrator' might be encouraged to give them somewhat more attention than is at present evident either in his professional education or his practice in a library. The 'librarian as bookman,' now a frequently derided figure, often possessed the supreme virtue that he did know his books. Too often there is little evidence that the present-day 'librarian as administrator' knows anything about administration. 'Petty tyranny and wasteful disorder,' to quote a memorable phrase from the U.S. Public Library Inquiry, are still too common features of what goes by the name of personnel management in many libraries. Some of it might be eradicated by ensuring that the librarian who manages is made familiar with the principles of management and administrative organization.

Fayol, Gulick and other writers have also

given us their identification of the various functions involved in administration. As in their enunciation of administrative principles, they are not in complete agreement (though there is agreement that the theory of administration is one and equally applicable to industry, central and local government and other types of organization). Gulick's version gives seven main functions—planning, organization, staffing, directing, co-ordinating reporting and budgeting. It is important to note that planning here is concerned with the formulation of a programme that will be based upon as clear a determination as it is possible to obtain of the real objectives of the service or institution concerned. The determination of library objectives, particularly of the objectives of the public library, has not received adequate attention in British professional literature; almost everything of importance has been done in the United States and, more recently and at the international level, by UNESCO. It is in connection with this determination of objectives that the study of library history is essential to the library administrator. 'Librarianship, as we know it, can be fully apprehended only through an understanding of its historic origins,' wrote Pierce Butler in his *Introduction to Library Science* in 1933. If the library administrator is to plan (and the day has surely gone when it was simply the function of the official to administer the policy laid down by the lay board or committee), he must first of all determine for what he is planning; if he is to determine the objectives he has the history of libraries to act as his guide; it is as simple as that. How much greater, one feels, would be the interest of the student in library history if this were made clear to him from the start.

Organization concerns itself with the arrangement of the structure, in terms of personnel and departmental organization necessary for the attainment of the determined objectives. Delegation of authority, span of control, unity of management, the hierarchical arrangement, the grouping of activities will be some of the problems brought to the administrator's attention here. To take a current issue in library organization, subject departmentalism will be seen as a problem in administrative organization and not merely as a

new-fangled idea from the other side of the Atlantic.

The remaining five elements are self-explanatory, but one point is worth underlining—the importance of the human factor in administration. In organization, as defined above, in 'staffing,' 'directing' and 'reporting' administration will be seen above all else as the use of men as well as of materials in the best interests of the particular service with which we are concerned—the public library service, the local government service as a whole or whatever it may be.

It would be misleading to suggest that any set of administrative principles or any breakdown of administration into its elements can be applied just as it stands to libraries as a whole or to the public, university or special library in particular. There can be no doubt that if such an application is made to current library administration in Great Britain it is difficult or even impossible to justify such practices as the continued survival of a great number of small and uneconomic units of service within the public library system of the country, the resistance on the part of almost all public libraries to a clear division of staff into professional and non-professional grades, the many obvious defects in the realm of personnel management. At the same time there will be other instances where the general principle has to be modified in its application to library administration. 'Thus,' to quote Miles and Martin, 'the public administration principles are used as guides instead of dogmas.'

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ADMISSION

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Winslow, A. 'Staff participation in management.' *Wilson Libr. Bull.*, 1953, 27, 624-8.

J.C.H.

Admission See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Adoption of acts See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Advance copy A copy of a book sent out before publication date for review, notice, or other purposes (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Agate line A standard of measurement for depth of advertising columns. Fourteen agate lines equal one column inch.

Air-conditioning See HEATING, VENTILATION, AIR-CONDITIONING.

Air-dried Of tub-sized papers, drying on a separate machine by warm air. Machine made papers are dried on heated cylinders at the end of the machine.

Aisle A passageway between the ranges of shelves in a stack desirably 3 ft to 4 ft in width to give free passage.

Alacra loan record 'Alacra' is the trade name of a type of register feeding continuous-form stationery, used by some research libraries for loan records.

Gauntlett, M. D. 'The use of continuous-form stationery for library loan records.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1953, 5, 129-30.

Alcove 1. A portion of a room divided off by the projection of book cases from the wall. Often equipped with table and chairs for study

purposes. 2. A recess in a wall fitted with shelves.

Alcove system An obsolete method of shelving books in wall and floor cases around alcoves, the arrangement sometimes extending for more than one floor.

Aldine Italic See ALDUS.

Aldus An Italian publishing firm founded in 1495 by Teobaldo Manucci (Aldo Manuzio, 1450-1515) in succession to Jenson. Aldus specialized in accurately printed editions of the Greek and Latin classics, but is perhaps most noted for the beautifully illustrated *Hypnerotomachia Poliphili* (1499). In 1501 was introduced a small format edition of the classics printed in a specially designed condensed type evolved for Aldus by Griffi from Italian chancery hands of about 1470. This type known in Italy as Aldino and elsewhere as Italic, was at first without upper case letters, but these were introduced by the French copyists about 1530. The Aldine italic was characterized by an undue number of contractions and ligatures which were later dropped. The printers' device of Aldus, the anchor and dolphin has been frequently used by other printers, notably Pickering in the 19th century for the Chiswick Press.

All along sewing In hand-sewing of books, with the thread passing from kettle stitch of successive signatures, one complete course of thread going to each section. Also used to describe machine book-sewing when each section is sewn with the full number of stitches.

All published When a work, part of which has been published, is not to be completed, or all issues of a discontinued periodical.

'All through' filing See LETTER BY LETTER FILING.

Allonym A false name, especially the name of some person assumed by an author to conceal identity or gain credit, an alias or pseudonym (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Almanac 1. An annual publication containing a calendar, frequently accompanied by astronomical data and other information. 2.

An annual of statistics and other information sometimes in a particular field (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Alphabetical subject catalogue A catalogue of subject entries arranged alphabetically by subject headings, together with the necessary *see* and *see also* subject references. By the addition of author, title and series entries together with the necessary references the alphabetical subject catalogue becomes a dictionary catalogue. The principle of specific entry is paramount in its construction; that is, each work is entered under a subject heading expressing the exact subject precisely and written in the direct form. A work on algebra would be entered under the heading Algebra, not under a class heading Mathematics, nor under an indirect form of heading such as Science—Mathematics—Algebra.

The chief advantage of this kind of catalogue is that a single direct consultation under the name of any individual and distinct subject will reveal all the entries for works on that subject. However, such a catalogue will not easily enable an enquirer to survey all the entries for books within a large subject field or class.

Alphabetical subject index An alphabetical list of all the subjects named or dealt with in a book, or in the schedules of a classification scheme, or for which there are entries in a classified catalogue, together with references to the place(s) where each subject occurs.

Alphabetic-classed catalogue A catalogue of subject entries entered under class subject headings in the indirect form, e.g. Science—Mathematics—Algebra, or Art—Painting—Gouache. The catalogue is arranged primarily into broad subjects alphabetically arranged; these are sub-arranged into their subordinate subjects in alphabetical order, each of these being sub-arranged by specific topics arranged alphabetically.

It was advocated that this kind of catalogue secured the advantages of both the classified and dictionary kinds by combining the systematic subordination of subject classes, sub-classes and topics with the simplicity of alphabetical arrangement. In practice, however, the arrangement appears complex to the enquirer, whilst collocation of related subjects

is largely destroyed by the use of alphabetical sub-arrangement.

Such a hybrid kind of catalogue, although possibly of use with a small and largely static stock, is seldom seen nowadays.

Alpha cellulose content An indication of the method by which the raw plant material is reduced and purified for paper pulp. Alkali resistance of the cellulose decreases with the severity of these processes. Chlorination in itself has normally little effect on cellulose content. The higher the cellulose material in paper, the better the quality.

Alternative location Term used in classification for the practice of allowing more than one possible place in a scheme for the location of a class or subject.

It is employed when there is no generally accepted agreement as to the correct place of a class or subject, in the arrangement of knowledge. A classifier may then decide on the best location for his purpose. Having done so he must continue to use his chosen alternative for all books on that subject.

The chief exponent of alternative location is H. E. Bliss. Examples may be found in his *Bibliographic classification*, 1952-53, and in his *Organization of knowledge in libraries*, 2nd ed., 1939.

Alternative title A sub-title introduced by 'or,' or its equivalent, e.g. *Twelfth night; or, What you will*.

Ambiguous title A title, the terms of which are so unprecise that various meanings may be ascribed to it, or so vague as to convey a wrong impression of the book's subject, e.g. 'Files and filing.' To be distinguished from a fanciful title, such as is often chosen for a purely literary work.

In a catalogue it is usual to amplify an ambiguous title, either in brackets immediately following the title, or in a note at the foot of the entry.

Americana All material that has been printed about the Americas, printed in the Americas, or written by Americans, with frequent restrictions of period to that of the formative stage in the history of the two continents or their constituent parts, the final date for North

AMPERSAND

America varying from 1800-1820 (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Amperсанд A corruption of '& per se = and'; meaning the character '&' alone. In some founts, especially swash, the ampersand shows clearly the letters *e* and *t*.

Anagram A transposition of the letters of a word or sentence resulting in some new word or sentence (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Analytical entry The entry in a catalogue for an individual part of a work, or of some article contained in a collection (a volume of essays, serial publications, etc.) including a reference to the publication which contains the article or work entered, *e.g.*

Beresford, Hugh.

The man upstairs. (*In Stone, J.A., compiler. Five new one-act plays. 1954.*)

This kind of entry is most often made for a distinct part of a work written by a person who is not the author of the whole work, but may be made for a chapter or article on a subject which is not treated by any single book in the library. The value of the analytical cataloguing of periodicals in accordance with this latter instance is thus easily seen, for usually the most recent developments in any field of knowledge are the subject of articles in periodicals before appearing as the subject of a complete book. In special and technical libraries analytical entries may be made for a single significant paragraph or a table, a single statement or a figure.

Analytical index 1. An alphabetical index under specific topics to information in articles arranged under general subjects, as in a reference book. 2. A classified index to material under specific subjects, as in a reference book (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Analytical note The statement in an analytical entry referring to the publication that contains the article or work entered, *i.e.* that part of an analytical entry which is enclosed by parentheses.

Analytical subject entry An analytical entry for an individual part of a book, entered in the catalogue under the subject with which the individual part deals. In a

dictionary catalogue or alphabetic subject catalogue the entry is assigned a subject heading, *e.g.*

Botany—Australia.

Johnson, Charles Joseph.

'Native wild flowers of Australia.' (*In Purnell, J. F. Australia today. 1953.*) 994

In a classified catalogue the entry would appear as:

581.994 Johnson, Charles Joseph.

'Native wild flowers of Australia.' (*In 994 Purnell, J. F. Australia today. 1953.*)

Anastatic printing A method of facsimile printing by means of zinc plates, given a relief printing surface through the action of nitric acid and alum on the metal.

Anastic reprints Facsimile reprints made in the mid-19th century especially in France from zinc plates on which an inked offset of the type had been etched in relief.

Anglo-American code The name by which the *Cataloguing rules: author and title entries*, compiled by committees of the Library Association and of the American Library Association, is familiarly known. Often quoted also as the A.-A. code and the Joint code.

The code was published in 1908 as a result of four years of cooperative effort on the part of the two committees as was the first international cataloguing code. Its origin lay in the fact that in 1900 the American Library Association appointed a committee to revise the *A.L.A. Catalogue Rules* (1883) with particular reference to securing agreement between the revised rules and Library of Congress cataloguing practice. This committee held its first meeting in March, 1901, and by 1902 an advance edition of the revised rules was printed for distribution inviting suggestions and criticisms. Since before 1900 British librarians had advocated revision of the Library Association's *Cataloguing Rules* (1883), and following the Association's annual general meeting in 1902 a committee for this revision was constituted, and produced a draft of the proposed revision in 1904. At the suggestion of a member of the American committee, Melvil Dewey, the two associations agreed in 1904 that their committees should cooperate

in the production of an Anglo-American code with a view to establishing uniformity of practice throughout the English-speaking world. Within four years an agreed code was produced, containing 174 rules relating to the entry, heading and descriptive cataloguing of works for an author and title catalogue.

The code may be regarded largely as a synthesis of the most practical and convenient rulings contained in the original codes of the two associations, those of the British Museum, Cutter, Dziatzko, Linderfelt and the Library of Congress. In only eight cases were the committees unable to agree on a joint ruling (rules 16, 32, 33, 40, 41, 116, 118 and 121) and here both rulings were included as alternatives. Nevertheless the rapid acceptance of this code in all kinds and sizes of libraries in both countries has since been instrumental in achieving a great measure of that uniformity of practice sought by the two associations.

The extent of its use threw into light various inadequacies and this, together with advances in cataloguing techniques and methods, led in time to demands for its further revision, particularly in the United States. In 1930 a sub-committee of the American Library Association was set up, and made independent of the Association in 1932, 'to make necessary revisions . . . with authority to cooperate with the Library Association of Great Britain and with such other national library associations as it may think appropriate.' With the aid of a Carnegie Corporation grant, work proceeded and a preliminary edition was published in 1941. This was divided into two parts, I. Entry and heading, II. Description of the book (a completely new section), and contained 375 rules in greater detail, making greater provision for the cataloguing of serial publications, government publications, publications of religious bodies, anonymous classics, music and maps, whilst the British alternative rules were omitted.

This preliminary edition met with the criticism of being over-elaborate and likely to increase the cost of cataloguing, but further revision was deferred until 1946 when the A.L.A. Division of Cataloguing and Classification assumed responsibility. Revision of part II was abandoned and the second edition of

part I was eventually published in 1949. Extensive re-arrangement of the rules was made in order to emphasize basic principles and secure a logical arrangement, the total number of rules reduced to 158, and rules applying to particular circumstances were given as subsections to the basic rules.

This latter, although used frequently in British libraries as an amplification of the 1908 code, may no longer properly be called the Anglo-American code since little co-operation with the Library Association took place, and it has assumed a largely American emphasis.

E.L.J.S.

Angular brackets See BRACKETS.

Aniline process A photographic process patented by William Willis in 1864. Paper impregnated with ammonium bichromate and phosphoric acid was exposed in contact with a line drawing (e.g. a plan). Developing was effected by exposure to the fumes of aniline and benzene.

Annotation A note appended to the entry or a book in a catalogue, reading list, bibliography, etc., extending the formal description of the book, detailing its subject, scope, purpose and special features. Originally the term, as used by cataloguers, embraced all notes of any kind following the collation. Modern practice separates bibliographical notes as the fifth part of a main entry, the annotation proper forming the sixth and final section.

An annotation may be purely descriptive, or critical. The former, called also characterization or analysis, comprises a factual description of the content of the book, adding information not revealed by the formal part of the entry. It concerns itself with detailing the following kinds of information:

The qualifications of the author or special experience affecting the book's authority.

The subject, theme, theory, etc., and the particular aspect dealt with.

The method of treatment, level of treatment, and the degree of prior knowledge of the subject required by the reader.

The standpoint of the author, the purpose of the book, and the class of reader for whom it is intended.

ANNUAL

The relation of the book to others by the same author or others on the same subject.

Critical annotation, called also evaluation or appraisal, states whether, in the view of the annotator, the author has successfully accomplished his aim in writing the book, and involves a comparison of the thought content of the book with existing literature on the same subject in arriving at an estimate of the book's worth.

Whilst descriptive annotation is most often used in catalogues within the library, evaluation is nowadays chiefly used in book lists and similar material for use away from the library.

Annual A serial publication which appears once in each year. Usually each publication is similar in scope and character to the preceding ones and often contains material particularly relevant to the year in which it is issued.

Anonymous A work is said to be anonymous, in the strict sense, if the author's name does not appear anywhere in the work. In this strict sense the term is used by cataloguers, although it is usual for the layman to regard works as being anonymous if the author has been definitely traced from any reputable source.

Strictly anonymous works are usually catalogued under their titles, as are also works the authorship of which is indicated by initials, typographical devices or a descriptive or generic word or phrase, e.g. 'by a student of the law.'

Anonymous classic A work of unknown or doubtful authorship commonly designated by title, which may have appeared in the course of time in many editions, versions and/or translations. For cataloguing purposes the term 'anonymous classic' includes, as well as single epics, poems, romances, chronicles, etc., composite anonymous texts known under a specific title (series of poems or romances, sacred literature, collections of legends, plays, etc.).

E.g.

Nibelungenlied, Mabinogion, Beowulf, The Bible, Chanson de Roland, Edda Snorra Sturlusonar, Reynard the fox, Völsunga saga.

Being anonymous, title entry is prescribed by A.-A.: 120 for this class of publication, the main entry being made under the English

name by which the classic is known, with reference from the vernacular form of title. Exception is made where the vernacular form is better known, this form then being adopted as main entry heading.

Since the various editions and translations of an anonymous classic appear under various forms of title, Cutter:125 and A.L.A. 2nd ed.: 33 recognize the value of entering these under a uniform heading, being the standard traditional or conventional title. Thus *The Arabian Nights entertainments, Book of the thousand and one nights, Tales from the Arabic, Stories from the Arabian Nights* and *The thousand and one nights* will all be catalogued under the main entry heading 'Arabian Nights.'

Anopisthographic block book A wood-cut impression on one side only of the paper. Writing ink was used in this method of printing rather than oily printers ink.

Anterior numeral classes See BIBLIOGRAPHIC CLASSIFICATION.

Anthology A collection of extracts from the works of various authors, sometimes limited to poetry or to a particular subject (A.L.A. Gloss.).

Antiqua German name for Roman type; basically small book hand derived from the Caroline minuscule.

Antique paper Any good paper with a matt surface. Usually made of esparto, uncalendered, and without loading. Similar in appearance to old hand made paper.

Apocryphal book 1. A book of doubtful authorship or authenticity. 2. Specifically, one of the books of the Old Testament or the New Testament Apocrypha (A.L.A. Gloss.).

Appendix Additional matter included at the end of a book, supplementary to the main text, and often of a statistical nature.

Aquatint A method of etching by which areas rather than lines result. A copper plate is dusted with powdered resin, heated until the resin melts, and, on cooling, is etched in a mordant. The exposed portions only of the plate are etched, and designs are made by masking the necessary parts by an acid resist.

The characteristic background is an irregular pattern of black and white dots. Aquatints are usually hand coloured, and resemble water colour paintings.

Archer, William, 1830-97 Held office as Librarian of the Royal Dublin Society Library and of the National Library of Ireland, as this became in 1877, from 1876-95. A scientist by training, Archer was responsible for the introduction in his library of the Decimal Classification—it was in use by 1877-78, so making N.L.I. the first important library in the British Isles known to have accepted the scheme—and for the planning of the small but highly practical National Library of Ireland building opened in 1890, embodying the ideas discussed in his *Suggestions as to public library buildings*, Dublin, 1881.

G.J.

Architecture, planning *Early history* The simplest way of housing books is to keep them in cupboards or on shelves against a wall. The medieval library, usually in colleges or monasteries, was a simple room furnished in this way, often with benches adjoining the shelves, on which the books could be studied. The shelves were often arranged jutting out from the walls to form alcoves, sometimes known as the 'stall system' of planning, and still used to-day. In the Hereford Cathedral library, where the books were chained to the shelves, this system may still be seen. Another early example is the Cloister Library at Gloucester (about 1400). Sometimes the shelves were made in the form of desks, so that the open books could be rested on top. Examples may be seen at Trinity Hall College Library, Cambridge (before 1600), while at the Bodleian, Oxford, in about 1610 high wall-shelving with galleries was constructed, a development which was a bad example, since noise from galleries is disturbing to readers below. A more developed example is the library of Trinity College, Cambridge (1678), by Sir Christopher Wren.

The Renaissance and Baroque brought a development towards magnificence rather than the study of practical needs. This was the era of the spacious monumental library, with pillars, high galleries and alcoves. The earliest examples are in Italy, especially the Biblioteca

Laurenziana, Florence (1526) and the Biblioteca Vaticana, Rome (1587). Later examples may also be seen in the castles of Austria, Germany and Czechoslovakia, where ducal money and patronage favoured their development, e.g. in the circular library at Wolfenbüttel and in the stupendous 'Prunksaal' of the National Library in Vienna (1726). But some examples are also still to be seen in the private libraries of some of the great English country houses, such as Blenheim, near Oxford, Holkham, Norfolk, and Kenwood, Hampstead, containing the classically-decorated library designed by the brothers Adam. These spacious rooms usually contained not only books, but served as museums for sculpture, globes, scientific instruments, etc. In those days both books and readers were comparatively few and space and storage were not yet problems.

Milka. *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft*, 2. Bd. 1. Kapitel.

'Library architecture' in *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 14th ed., 1929.

Dod, H. A. 'Library planning' in *J. R.I.B.A.*, 1936, May 9, 685.

National libraries

In the first half of the 19th century the increase in the number of books and in the number of readers gave rise to new ideas in library planning. The problem of storage began to be a real one, and it became necessary to separate the storage space from the reading room space. At the same time every volume had to be quickly accessible. This is still the main planning problem of large libraries, after about a hundred years of development, during which it has been solved in a variety of ways. In Europe up to 1850 it had been a matter of adapting old palatial and monumental buildings to an ever-increasing number of books and readers.

But when the rotary press came into general use about mid-19th century such measures as adding galleries to one-hall baroque library buildings were no longer adequate. Libraries needed thenceforward specially planned buildings.

The earliest attempt at a major solution of the problem was the building of the British Museum library in 1852, conceived by the

ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING

librarian Panizzi, and designed by the architects R. & S. Smirke. It consisted of the well-known circular reading room for 450 readers, surrounded by bookstacks. Daylight from the dome above was more essential then than now, in the absence of electric lighting. The dome is largely supported by the surrounding stacks. The stacks were constructed of cast-iron, which was the great new material of the period used in great contemporary buildings, such as the Crystal Palace at the 1851 exhibition, and Paddington railway station. Nowadays steel or concrete would be used. Esdaile. *National libraries of the world*, 1934.

Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris

Another solution of the storage problem was found in 1854.

In 1720 the Royal Library of France had moved into buildings on its present site, known as the Hôtel Tubeuf and the Hôtel de Nevers; the Galerie Mazarine was not used for library purposes until the 1820s. Visconti, who became architect to the Bibliothèque in 1825 had already proposed the construction of a new building, and in 1854 Henri Labrouste succeeded him and carried out the restoration, adaptation and rebuilding.

The problem of relating bookstack to readers was in this case solved by a four-storey stack adjoining the reading room (Salle de Travail des Imprimés) with an alcove in between to accommodate the librarians who supervise the room and are intermediaries between the books and the readers. These two departments of the library are placed end to end, which unfortunately creates long distances for the staff to 'run.' (This was improved upon in 1931 at the Swiss National Library, described below, where the two departments—reading rooms and bookstacks—are parallel.)

In the 1930s much was added to the existing building, to adapt it to present day needs. In 1937 the extensions to the original building were completed and the Salle Ovale was adapted for use as a newspaper and periodicals reading room for 268 readers. An account of the history of the building up to this time will be found in the periodical *La Construction Moderne*, 1937, Nov. 14, pp. 114-20. Simultaneously another step was taken towards

modernization—the building of the great Annexe at Versailles. Like the British Museum's depository at Hendon, this was built as an overflow depot chiefly for newspapers, and was the first of three blocks to contain a total of over 12 miles of shelves. It is a reinforced concrete 8-floor storage library, with glass bricks built into the walls to admit light. (*Archit. Build. News*, 1935, Jan. 25, 137-9.) Another similar block was completed in 1953, and one more is to follow.

The Prints Department, with its own stacks, reading room and offices was rebuilt within the old building, and opened in 1946. Labrouste, Henri. *La Bibliothèque Nationale, ses bâtiments et ses constructions*, 1885.

The Austrian National Library, Vienna

In its early days, from the Middle Ages till 1623 this was housed in the Minorite Monastery. In 1623 it was transferred to the Hofburg, into eight inadequate and damp rooms.

In 1726 the Baroque building designed by Fischer von Erlach, was completed, including the monumental 'Prunksaal,' a marble-pillared hall with high galleries, and decorated with busts and statues, and with frescoed cupola and ceilings, painted by Daniel Gran. But accommodation was inadequate from the start, and this was remedied only by makeshift measures until the stacks were rebuilt in 1903-06, and also a new reading room for 100 readers. In 1923 a newspaper reading room was built over this, and in 1928-30 two bookstacks were added under the main hall. *Festschrift der Nationalbibliothek in Wien*, 1926.

Esdaile. *National libraries* . . . 1934, pp. 177-9 and plates.

Library of Congress, Washington

The Library of Congress, Washington, followed the British Museum plan, with a central, but octagonal reading room and the bookstacks further away. The design suffered from monumentality, and unfortunately later the spacious courtyard round the reading room had to be filled in with bookstacks, thus spoiling the natural lighting. This was a less successful variant of the British Museum plan.

From the foundation of the Library in Washington in 1802 it was housed in the Capitol, where it remained until the new

building was completed in 1897, designed to hold 4½ million volumes and in Italian Renaissance style. In its interior decoration, including many paintings and sculptures, it is an echo of the monumental Baroque library, and in plan an echo of the British Museum. But it is of course also a modern storage library, with mechanical book-conveyors (including a special delivery system to Congress itself) and pneumatic tubes for conveying book requisitions. The reading room was designed for over 200 readers, while the same number again is accommodated in carrels in the bookstacks and in study rooms, and in specialized reading rooms. (Esdaile: *National libraries* . . . 1934, pp. 104-8.) Like every large library, it soon outgrew its storage space: one-quarter had to be filled in with bookstacks in 1910 and a further quarter in 1927. From 1929-33 a Rare Book Room, a Union Catalog Room and a study room were added, but without basically solving the space problem.

This necessitated the building of the great Annex on an adjoining site East of the main building and next to the Folger Shakespeare Library. The Annex is a solid mass of shelving surrounded by work spaces, and is five storeys high. It cost over \$8,000,000. The fifth floor is entirely reading space. Office or work space 35 feet wide surrounds the first three floors of stack. There is underground parking space right round the building. The main building shelves about 5 million volumes, but the Annex, although smaller, shelves about 10 million.

Roberts, M. A. *The Annex of the Library of Congress—with plans and photos—in Report of Libn. of Congress for 1936-37.*

Lenin State Public Library, Moscow

What is now the Lenin Library was first opened in 1862 in the Dom Pashkova, designed by the Russian architect Bazhenov. In 1925 it was named 'Lenin Library.'

The new building was designed by architects Shchuko and Gelfreikh and built in the 1930s. It has an 18-storey bookstore and houses a stock of nearly 10 million volumes. It is richly decorated outside with sculpture, and inside has the most modern, including mechanized, equipment. A detailed descrip-

tion in Russian, with plans, is given in the periodical *Arkhitektura S.S.S.R.*, 1938, No. 12, 5-27, and a shorter article appears in the *Libr. Ass. Rev.*, 1944, 46, 117-19.

The Swiss National Library, Berne

This library was founded in 1895, but its great new building dates only from 1931. It is a model of good library planning, which is due perhaps to the fact that not only was the design the subject of an architectural competition, but the architects of the designs awarded the first three places in the competition were then asked to collaborate, in order to unite all the winning good qualities.

It cost 4½ million Swiss francs. Problems of storage, quick service, acoustics, and supervision of reading rooms have all been solved. The 8-storey stack is along the back of the building, with central lifts terminating at the book-delivery enclosure, which is behind glass screens. From this central point there are clear lines of vision through glass screens into the reading room and the periodicals reading room in one direction to a green courtyard beyond. In the other direction, again through glass, may be seen the catalogue hall and exhibition room. There is good supervision, a sense of space, and lack of disturbance from noise. The floors are rubber, and the ceilings acoustically treated.

Plans and illustrations should be studied in the publications listed below.

Godet, M. *La bibliothèque Nationale Suisse*, Berne. Berne, Bibliothèque Nationale, 1932. Articles in *Archit. Rev.*, 1945, Oct., 94-98. *Archit. Build. News*, 1935, March 1, 282-5.

Public libraries

Public library buildings have been better described in print than the other types, and reference should be made to the books by Sayers, Ashburner and by Wheeler and Githens quoted below. A selected and annotated bibliography in *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries*, 1954, October, gives references to some of the best buildings. Wheeler and Githens quote the accepted principles of library planning, which may be summarized as follows: Architect, librarian and building committee must co-operate; the size of the building and its cost of upkeep must be in proportion to the size of the community served; a competent trained

ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING

librarian should be in charge from the start, and if possible someone familiar with library planning; one should profit from the ideas and plans of other libraries, but not copy blindly; the interior and the proper economical relationship of rooms should be planned first; the position of service desks, catalogues, furniture and equipment should form an integral part of the plan; growth and change to be allowed for; fireproof construction; noise reduction by use of acoustic materials; avoid features that attract sightseers and waste of space in domes, halls, grand stairways, etc.; the exterior should attract the public, and books should be visible from the outside; supervision should be possible with the fewest possible staff; there should be adequate work-space for the staff; adequate children's room, usually with separate entrance; there should be 'open shelving' for as many of the 'live' books as possible; and enough storage for less-used and 'retired' books and periodicals; there must be quick and easy access to the book-stacks, with the aid of book-lifts and conveyors; as much natural light as possible in reading and work rooms; artificial lighting must be scientifically planned to give a minimum of glare and a maximum of diffused light (see also article on LIGHTING).

In the middle of the 19th century, about the same time as the big pioneer national library buildings were going up, the English Parliament passed its Public Libraries Act, 1850, and following this some public libraries were built, including an early example at Norwich in 1857. But the limits on expenditure to the halfpenny rate hindered any great development. By 1880 a fresh stimulus was given by grants for library buildings made by Andrew Carnegie and by Passmore Edwards. It was not, however, until the 1914-18 war that the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust made grants to county authorities for founding and equipping libraries, and only in 1919 was the Act passed which removed the rate restriction on expenditure and thus opened the gates to progress in building.

By 1900 open access was becoming the rule for public libraries and the service counter was the centre of activity in the library plan, with a commanding position for supervision of the whole library. The needs of the reading public

are provided for now by the following departments: lending, reference, children's, newspaper and magazine rooms, as well as administrative offices for the library staff.

Public library buildings fall naturally into two categories: central libraries and branch or small libraries.

Central libraries. The following British central libraries may be studied as good models:

- 1929 Hendon, London N.W.4. (See Ashburner, 43-45.)
- 1934 Sheffield. (See Ashburner, 55-60; *Archit. J.*, 1934, July 5; *Archit. Build. News*, 1934, July 20.)
- 1934 Manchester. (See Ashburner, 62-65; *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1934, Aug., 243-61.)
- 1936 Wallington, Surrey. (See Ashburner, 34; *Archit. Build. News*, 1936, Sept. 18.)
- 1939 Huddersfield. (See Ashburner, 51-54 and 136-8; *Archit. J.*, 1940, Nov. 7, 379-81.)
- 1940 St. Marylebone, London. (See Ashburner, 45-47; *Archit. J.*, 1940, June 13, 596-9 and 1941, June 12, 379.)

Outside Britain some of the finest central library buildings are:

United States

1. Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Md. Built over 20 years ago, a pioneer of the subject department plan. (*Libr. J.*, 1953, May 15.)
2. Brooklyn, finished 1941, designed by Githens and Keally. (*Pencil Points*, 1941, July, 254-60.)
3. Toledo, Ohio. 'Open' plan, for alternative arrangement of interior; six subject rooms. (*Pencil Points*, 1941, July, 463-8.)
4. Cincinnati, Ohio. 'Open' plan divided by furniture; five subject rooms. (*Libr. J.*, 1949, Dec. 15, 1873-4.)

Finland

- Viipuri (Viborg), designed by Aalto. (*Archit. Rev.*, 1936, March, 107-14.)

Sweden

1. Stockholm, designed by Asplund, with circular lending hall upstairs and stacks beneath. (*Archit. J.*, 1931, Jan. 14, 88-94.)
2. Malmö (*Bogens Verden*, Copenhagen, 1946, 421-7).

Switzerland

- Lucerne, is a successful solution of a planning problem on a noisy site in the centre

of the town; a central garden courtyard provides peaceful and refreshing conditions for readers, served by an adjacent multi-storey bookstack. (*Schweizerische Bauzeitung*, 1952, May 31, 318-21, and plates 17-20.)

Small and Branch Libraries

The smallest library consists of one room which may be divided up for different uses, for adults, children, newspapers, etc., by the distribution of the shelving and furniture.

Before 1914 the Carnegie Corporation stimulated building by the publication of its leaflet 'Notes on the erection of library buildings' (*sic*). This was a kind of manifesto of economy and good taste, which showed how to 'obtain for the money the utmost amount of effective accommodation, consistent with good taste in building.' It was written especially for small libraries and its recommendations still hold. All the essential points are quoted in Wheeler and Githens (quoted below), Chap. 23. The one room 'Carnegie rectangle' plan may be taken as the basis from which all other plans have developed. A one-room plan may be seen at Belsize Park branch of Hampstead Public Libraries in London; tasteful treatment has here lent charm to an economical building.

From the one-room building developed the slightly larger one with a central desk and a room on either side, usually an adult and a children's reading room.

The medium-sized branch incorporates further a bookstack or lending library immediately behind the desk, so that the entrance leads straight to the desk and past it into the lending library. This is the plan at the Norris Green branch, Liverpool, for stock of 20,000 volumes. (Illustrated by Ashburner (p. 32), and at West Humberstone branch Leicester (p. 33), and at Firth Park branch, Sheffield (p. 38).) This became the pattern for many branch libraries in Britain in the 1930s. A variation, fitted into an awkward site, may be seen at East Finchley, London (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1939, Jan., 24-27), serving about 20,000 population, and with initial bookstock of 13,000 volumes.

Another development of the rectangular plan is the Bitterne Branch at Southampton, a light and spaciouly planned single-storey

library (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1939, Oct., 504-5). More recently an example of the modular 'open plan' library has been built at Manor Branch, Sheffield (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, June, 184-6) to house about 20,000 volumes. The modular and 'open plan' is more developed in the United States and examples are quoted in the Unesco bibliography quoted at the beginning of this section on public libraries. Sayers. Chapter in *Brown's manual of library economy*, 6th ed., 1949.

Wheeler and Githens. *The American public library building*. Scribner, 1941.

Ashburner. *Modern public libraries, their planning and design*. Grafton, 1946.

Special libraries

There are many different kinds of special libraries, some of which collect special subjects, some of which serve a special class of reader, and some which collect special forms of material. The building for each of these types must be adapted to its purpose. The last group often presents special planning problems, where provision must be made for housing special material such as drawings, films, newspaper cuttings, maps, music, etc. The principles mentioned above under 'Public libraries' also apply here, and the chapter by J. B. Reed quoted below is especially useful on questions of layout and how it should be determined by the flow of traffic within the library, *i.e.* the flow of material, of readers, and of staff activities.

The housing of drawings may be seen at the R.L.B.A. Library (mentioned below).

The needs of film libraries are described in Brown's 'Problems of film storage for archive purposes' in *British Kinematography*, vol. 20, No. 5, 1952, May, and in *British Standard 1153 : 1955, Standard recommendations for storage of microfilm*.

The storage of maps is similar to that of drawings. They may be (a) kept bound up in sets; (b) kept flat in large pamphlet boxes, portfolios or in shallow drawers; (c) in vertical files; (d) in a fan file (expensive method). These methods may be seen in London at the British Museum map department and at the Royal Geographical Society.

Music libraries (McColvin and Reeves' *Music libraries*, Grafton, 1937) and gramophone record departments (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*,

ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING

1954, July, 251-9) have problems of their own.

Newspaper libraries usually must store a collection of reference books, a collection of newspapers and magazines, a cuttings collection and a photograph collection.

Lewis. *Newspaper libraries*. Libr. Ass. pamphlet.

Many special libraries have to make do with office rooms as their premises, but a few good examples planned and built as libraries are as follows: 1. The library of the General Electric Company Research Laboratories at Wembley, completed in 1923, and housing, as well as books and periodicals a large collection of technical reports. 2. The Royal Institute of British Architects, London, containing about 60,000 volumes, and with special provision for housing a large drawings collection (*J. R.I.B.A.*, 1934, Nov., 56-61). 3. The new library of Imperial Chemical Industries Dye-stuffs Division, Blackley, Manchester (pamphlet, 1955; and article in *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, Oct., 402-5). 4. Bedales School Library, Petersfield, Hampshire, a rare combination of tradition, beauty and convenience in a school library (Ernest Gimson . . . Blackwell, 1924, plates 11-14). 5. The Folger Shakespeare Library, Washington, a large library of literature designed by P. P. Cret containing a reading room in the style of Shakespeare's time, to evoke the contemporary atmosphere, and at the same time fulfilling the function of a large modern research library (*Amer. Archit.*, 1932, Sept., 46-62). 6. The Houghton Library of Rare Books, Harvard University, which has special air-conditioning and equipment for the preservation of rare books (*Archit. Rec.*, 1943, July, 42-47; *R.I.B.A. Library bibliography on library buildings*, 5. *Special libraries*, 1951; Reed, J. B. 'Library planning,' in *Handbook of special librarianship*, Aslib, 1955, 179-204).

University and college libraries

Each type of library serves a different body of readers, and the first question the planner should ask is 'What is the building for?' The university library's purpose is complex: it is usually a general library serving a special type of reader, i.e. students and research workers, including lecturers and professors, divided up into a number of faculties or subject groups.

University libraries have been built in the past to look like factories or like cathedrals, and many have been adorned with towers (Pittsburgh, Cambridge, London, Ghent), but these are incidental characteristics.

Every college and university depends on a good library service adapted to its particular needs, and able to supply specialized books at the right standard for every subject taught. The library should therefore be planned functionally; fine examples of this in the U.S.A. are University of Pennsylvania, Princeton, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston; and in Britain at Cambridge, Swansea and Liverpool. Such good library facilities undoubtedly stimulate the independent spirit of the student.

The library must house a large bookstock in relation to its number of readers, and must occupy a central site in the university. There must be a general reading room, specialized reading rooms or 'seminars' for arts subjects (the counterpart of laboratories in science), possibly a reserved books room, and a separate periodicals reading room. In the U.S.A. many colleges have also a 'browsing room' where students may learn to enjoy books in comfort in their leisure hours. Finally there may or may not be a number of libraries in the university departments under the control of the main library. On this last point practice and opinion varies. In many cases departments still cling to their own book collections (where indeed some books must be kept for departmental use), but there is a growing tendency to bring departmental libraries under the control of the main library, which holds a union catalogue of their contents. This policy is followed (to quote some various examples) at Liverpool (see below), at Cape Town, South Africa and at Dartmouth College in the U.S.A. The boundaries between subjects are breaking down, and the advantage of a liberal education demands that the student should make excursions into many fields, with his own subject as his base camp. Again, the ideals of education shift and change, and so the university library must also be prepared for expansion and change. Recently, especially in the U.S.A., the modular plan has been used (see article on MODULAR PLANNING) in order to allow

flexibility for interchangeable uses of space in the building. Examples of this are Iowa (*Archit. Rec.*, 1946, Nov., 111-15, and account of the first completed unit for 1,500 readers and 400,000 volumes in *Amer. School & Univ.*, 1951-52, 339-42); and Princeton (*Engng News Rec.*, 1947, Dec., 112-15); and the Lamont Library, Harvard (*Archit. Build. News*, 1950, Jan. 6, 9-15).

University library buildings in Britain worthy of special study are: 1. *Cambridge*, designed by Sir Giles Gilbert Scott and completed in 1934. The ground floor houses the main services to readers, including the catalogues in the centre and main reading room for about 170 readers along the whole of the western side of the building. There are about 47 miles of shelving, with a capacity for over a million volumes. It is a depository library under the Copyright Act, and serves students only after they have completed two years of study. 2. *Leeds*, designed by Lancaster, Lucas and Lodge, and completed in 1936. Circular building with circular reading room and circular stackroom beneath of 160 ft diameter. Capacity for up to a million volumes (*Builder*, 1936, Oct. 9; *Archit. Build. News*, 1936, Oct. 9). 3. *Swansea University College*, designed by Verner Rees and completed in 1937. This is a much smaller building, holding only about 140,000 volumes. It has one large main reading room containing about 8,500 volumes on open access, an Arts Research Room, seminar rooms and recently a separate periodicals reading room. The decoration and furniture are well done. It serves nearly a thousand students. 4. *Liverpool*, designed by H. A. Dod, and completed in 1938. Contains over 100,000 open access volumes, with an 8-floor bookstack at the back of the building, each stack-floor being 7 ft high. There is plenty of space for expansion within the building, allowing for a future capacity of about a million volumes. On the first floor are the catalogue hall and main reading room for 120 readers, and special reading rooms. On the ground floor below is the main entrance, study rooms and extra space for book storage. This library also has 26 branch libraries under its control, situated in various parts of the university, and with a union catalogue at the main library

(*J. R.I.B.A.*, 1936, May 9, 696 ff.; *Builder*, 1938, June 10, 1132-4).

(General references to university library buildings: *R.I.B.A. bibliography on library buildings*, 4 *Univ. and Coll. libraries*, 1951; *Bibliography on library planning: 'College and Univ. libraries'*, in *Bull. Amer. Inst. Archit.*, 1947, Sept., 42-44; Wilson, L. R. and Tauber, M. F., *The University library*, Chicago, 1945, Chap. XIV, 'Buildings and equipment'; Gerould, J. T., *The college library building*. New York, Scribner, 1932.)

See also ACOUSTICS; FLOORS AND FLOORING; HEATING, VENTILATING AND AIR CONDITIONING; LIGHTING; MODULAR PLANNING. A.T.

Archives have been defined by G. Barraclough as 'all writings which accumulate naturally during the conduct of affairs of any kind and are preserved for reference either by the persons who compiled them, or by interested parties, or by their successors,' and records as 'archives which have been set aside for preservation in official custody, which must have been unbroken.' Archives may be in typescript or processed form, or mingled with printed material, but are normally manuscripts. They must, however, be distinguished from manuscripts valuable intrinsically rather than as part of a series, e.g. an illuminated psalter, archaeological notes, private letters or collections of documents arranged artificially according to their handwriting, seals or illustrations. Individual items in an archive group may be and normally are of no value at all in isolation.

The eclectic methods of 19th century antiquaries who pulled out the plums of the collections they ravaged before leaving them to libraries, and the practice in the sale catalogues perused by librarians of emphasizing outstanding treasures, rather than groups of documents, have in the past led some librarians to apply to archives professional techniques more appropriate to books—not only to catalogue them as individual items but even to rearrange and sort them as though they were so many volumes. In reaction against these practices there has grown up in recent years and particularly since the foundation of the British Records Association in 1932

ARCHIVES

a body of professional archivists pledged to the sanctity of the archive group, and trained in different skills to those of the librarian, who had been early in the field in collecting archives.

History The British Museum Library, founded in 1759 received some of the archival and non-archival manuscripts of the pioneer collectors Sir Robert Cotton (d. 1631) and Robert Harley (d. 1724); and the Bodleian (1602), Cambridge University (15th century) and several college libraries also benefited similarly. Archbishop Parker (d. 1575) for example, bequeathed his extensive collections to Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. The national archives, however, formerly lodged in the Tower of London and elsewhere were never associated with libraries and were placed in a new Public Record Office in 1838.

Probate records were later given separate registries and the Historical Manuscripts Commission, founded in 1869 to enquire into the existence of unpublished manuscripts in private and public repositories, did not hint at the desirability of deposit in libraries. Municipalities were first questioned about their archives by the Record Commissioners of 1837 after which several town clerks began to take their responsibilities more seriously and when county councils were established in 1888 the clerk assumed custody of their records; there were no county librarians at this date who could have undertaken this work, even had it been thought appropriate that they should. The niggardly financial provision in the Public Libraries Acts (1850-93) prevented local libraries from engaging on elaborate schemes, but with the help of donations or older basic collections a few such as Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool and the Guildhall Library, London, began to collect manuscripts, as did the new redbrick university libraries. There were also substantial collections in the old Scottish university libraries and in both the Chetham (1651) and John Rylands (1899) libraries, Manchester. Most ecclesiastical records were not in the cathedral libraries, but under the charge of diocesan or archidiaconal registrars.

Of 170 boroughs and London vestries who sent replies to the Treasury Local Records Committee enquiry of 1899 only eight en-

trusted their administration to their librarians so that it was perhaps not surprising that the *Report* of this body (1902) condemned public libraries as repositories of archives on the grounds that they were crowded and not fire-proof and that the scope of a public library differed from that of a record office. In the next 45 years the position of libraries was strengthened. Many notable collections passed into their hands and the Master of the Rolls recognized several libraries as manorial depositories for court rolls under the Law of Property (Amendment) Act, 1924. In 1919 the newly formed University of London School of Librarianship included palaeography and archives in its syllabus followed shortly by the Library Association; the removal of the rate restriction by the Public Libraries Act (1919) also helped. The great copyright libraries (National Libraries of Wales and of Scotland, Trinity College, Dublin, British Museum, Bodleian and Cambridge University Libraries) have all greatly increased their holdings in the present century and still receive great deposits (e.g. the Gladstone papers at the British Museum, the Oxford diocesan records at the Bodleian, the Cholmondeley papers from Houghton at Cambridge). Many important collections of archives remain in old established libraries such as those of theological colleges (Oscott), public schools (Stoneyhurst), monasteries (Fort Augustus), learned societies (Royal Society of Arts) or endowed foundations (Dr. Williams Library; William Salt Library; St. Deiniol's Library, Hawarden; Public Library, Armagh). The Council for the Preservation of Business Archives has stimulated the preservation of private firms' records but few have found their way to libraries as have those of small local societies and clubs. The libraries of many archaeological societies have good archival collections (e.g. Leeds). In Great Britain in the past ten years public libraries have lost ground to town and county clerks in this work. Before the Second World War there were full-time archivists on the staffs of five public libraries, 5 town clerks and 13 county clerks; in 1953 about 18 public librarians, 9 town clerks and 46 county clerks engaged archivists.

The smaller libraries which had done

pioneer work before the advent of the county record offices found their methods discredited. Full-time training courses at the Universities of London and Liverpool (1947) and repair courses at the Public Record Office were superior to the older part-time qualification of the Library Association; librarians found the latter ancillary qualification of little value except in the smaller authorities and, not unnaturally, fully qualified archivists would not seek work where they might be called on for reference or general library duties. The largest libraries now employ qualified archivists exclusively on work with manuscripts.

Present practice Though few fresh libraries are likely to undertake the work the future expansion of archives in public libraries now engaged on this work is certain.

(a) The smaller libraries will not only retain collections built up over the years but add strictly local material. Technically they will increasingly rely on the advice and perhaps participation of county archivists (Essex, Worcestershire) and perhaps employ a librarian with a flair for the work, possessing the L.A. certificate in palaeography and archives. A few will continue to have documents calendared by outside agencies.

(b) In areas where there are county record offices the larger libraries will increasingly concentrate on their immediate areas (Birmingham, Liverpool, Guildhall) leaving the surrounding districts to be covered by the county record offices.

(c) Elsewhere (Yorkshire, Norfolk) libraries may continue to collect for wide areas or participate in joint schemes (Ipswich, Lincoln). Libraries taking part in work on this scale will be indistinguishable in their equipment and methods from county record offices, and their staffs of archivists, repairers and clerks will be fully trained for the work.

(d) Although unlikely to affect the present position arguments for and against the participation of public libraries in archives work may be summarized. It is suggested for libraries that they are statutory permanent institutions, open eleven or twelve hours a day with collections of local and other reference works freely available in the same building as the archives, and that

librarians have a long tradition of housing, conserving and making accessible valuable material. They are fully conversant with modern photographic techniques and a library is more readily accepted as a focal point for students than a corporation office; its equipment and staff need be in no way inferior. Local material should be available locally and not at the county town. Against libraries is argued their inability to understand the importance of custody. County offices have compulsory obligations to conserve certain records; libraries only permissive ones. Modern archives demand continuity between the archive-making and preserving departments and one official (the clerk) should be responsible for both. Some libraries make their archivists undertake library work, and all equate them with departmental heads. The county archivist has similar status to the county librarian himself. Both types of archivist need vastly better equipment and larger strong rooms, and had better compose their quarrels and march forward together.

In university libraries there is perhaps a danger that the records may be regarded primarily as quarries for local history students rather than as archives. Such libraries have no need to reach any real agreement with public libraries and county record offices working in the same areas, for many owners who would eschew a local authority will, for prestige, deposit with a university, and regional collections relating to several counties are appropriately housed there (e.g. the Middleton and Portland archives of Nottingham University).

The 'war' between the local authorities is not likely to upset the traditional methods of copyright and other types of library who may be relied upon to retain their prestige in the manuscript field.

Types of record Libraries collect every kind of record, except the archives of the state and of county councils. Public records include those of governing bodies (universities, cities), guilds under their charge, lands held by them, courts under their jurisdiction. Semi-public records include those of commercial corporations and trade unions, educational and charitable foundations, professional bodies and schools. Private records include family

ARCHIVES

and estate records such as deeds, court rolls, surveys, rentals and terriers, and correspondence and family papers. Ecclesiastical records may be either provincial (e.g. Canterbury and York), diocesan, capitular, archidiaconal, ruridecanal, or parochial or of non-conformists. Normally parchment or paper, records may be in rolls, volumes, files, bundles or single documents, they may bear interesting seals or illuminations. Maps, plans and engravings (see LOCAL HISTORY COLLECTIONS) are sometimes handled by archivists and sometimes by librarians.

Equipment Repositories must have adequate accommodation for off-loading and separate storage (to strong room standards) for collections before and after fumigation and disinfection. Temperature control, air conditioning and protection against fire, water and damp are essential. The staff accommodation must include ample washing facilities, and documentary reproduction (contact, microfilm reader and camera) must be allowed for. A dark room and infra-red camera may also be included. Presses, large benches with illuminated panels for repair, a sink with hot and cold water, sewing frame, cutting boards, guillotine, gas or electric ring, pans for paste, size and glue, drying lines, scissors and magnifying glasses are essential. Shelving should be metal but may be open rather than solid; boxes should be of uniform size, perforated with air holes and with rustproof staples.

Professional organization Archive-collecting libraries should be institutional members of the British Records Association and their staffs after training (see above) members of the Society of Archivists. Both these organizations issue indispensable publications. The National Register of Archives, a branch of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, has a county organization that aims at maintaining a central register of all British archives; many libraries now report their holdings. The Library Research Committee of the Library Association has a standing sub-committee on archives. *Conclusion* In 1951 the Library Association survey showed that at least 148 libraries of all types maintained archive collections, and that 10 reported 75,000 documents and a further 18 over 10,000. The British Museum, Cambridge University and Bodleian Libraries were

however, important libraries not covered by the survey. The first list of accessions to repositories of the National Register of Archives (*Bulletin* No. 6, 1955) perhaps gives a truer picture of the part played by the more active libraries.

The 48 libraries concerned (of 99 institutions reported on) comprise five copyright libraries, twelve university libraries, twenty-four municipal libraries, one Dean and Chapter's library, three archaeological society's libraries, one county library, the India Office Library and the John Rylands Library. The contribution of libraries to archives is obviously as diverse as it is considerable, typical of the infinite variety of our national and local institutions.

On the subject generally Sir Hilary Jenkinson, *Manual of archive administration* (2nd ed., 1937) and the numerous publications of the British Records Association are essential. The Society of Local Archivists, *Local records their nature and care* (1953) has much information on libraries of all types and J. L. Hobbs, *Libraries and the materials of local history* (1948) is especially strong on the historical and practical side; it has an excellent bibliography. The British Museum, Bodleian and several Oxford and Cambridge colleges have published catalogues of their manuscripts; Guildhall Library and Birmingham (included with other local material) have also done so. Birmingham and Norwich public libraries have so far appeared in the series 'Local archives of Great Britain' in *Archives*, the official journal of the British Records Association, in which other occasional references to archives in libraries are made. On public libraries G. B. Stephens 'Archives in Libraries' (*Llandudno conference papers*, 1953, 50-55) and P. Hepworth 'Archives in local collections' (*Librarian*, 1955, 44, 156-9), may be consulted, and on university libraries Mary A. Renshaw 'A university archive repository' (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 75-80). H. G. T. Christopher, *Palaeography and archives* (1938) is written for librarians but rather slight. The *Bulletin* of the Institute of Historical Research has since 1923 published regular reports of historical manuscripts offered for sale or acquired by repositories, but since 1955 the

accessions to repositories have been published in a special annual number of the Bulletin of the National Register of Archives. The Library Association survey of 'Archives in libraries' (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1951, 53, 263-4) is confined to libraries in membership of the Association.

P.H.

Aristronym A title of nobility converted into, or used as, a surname.

Armarian A worker in a monastic library whose duty it was to prevent the books under his charge from being injured by insects, to look after bindings, and keep a correct catalogue (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Array See CLASSIFICATION.

Art canvas A cloth for bookbinding.

Art galleries Library authorities have powers under the Public Libraries Acts to provide and maintain art galleries and for that purpose may purchase and hire land and erect, take down, rebuild, alter, repair and extend buildings and may fit up, furnish and supply all the requisite furniture and fittings. The Acts also permit the provision of 'specimens of art.' In addition, a local authority may accept gifts of property, real and personal and may execute works incidental to or consequential on such acceptance. Some local authorities have secured powers under local Acts of Parliament to establish art and picture funds. A limit is usually placed on amounts which may be contributed annually to such funds and on the total accumulation in them. The limits vary but in most cases the annual sum of £100 or £200 and the total accumulation £2,000 to £5,000.

Expenditure on art galleries is included in the sum to be raised for all purposes under the Acts. The Minister of Education may make grants in aid of the purchase, for addition to the collections exhibited in local museums and art galleries in England and Wales, of works of art (including reproductions) other than paintings in oil. (See further under MUSEUMS.) Accounts must be kept and are subject to audit. A committee and staff may be appointed and byelaws and regulations made.

On the question of admission the Acts are

silent and it must be assumed that a charge may be imposed. Sunday opening is permitted under the Sunday Entertainments Act, 1932.

With regard to Byelaws, Committees, Inflection, Offences, Rates and Taxes, etc., see further under those titles, and as to Adoption of the Acts, lands and buildings, finance and the law generally see further under title PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

Hewitt, A. R. *Summary of public library law*. 3rd ed. (rev.), 1955.

Local Government Law and Administration in England and Wales, 14 volumes, 1934-41, and annual continuations to date (title: *Art Galleries*).

A.R.H.

Art paper Paper coated on one or both sides with a china clay or similar material to give a smooth surface for use in printing fine half-tone blocks.

Art vellum A type of lightweight book cloth.

Art work An inclusive term used to cover photographs, drawings, paintings, hand lettering, etc., and similar illustrative material in contrast to the pointed matter.

Artificial classification A system in which an accidental characteristic is used as distinguished from a natural classification. It is classification by outward likeness, by analogy. (See also NATURAL CLASSIFICATION.)

Artist's proof A proof of an engraving, usually with the signature of the artist or a small sketch in pencil, known as *remarque*, in the margin to indicate the state. Also called *Remarque proof*.

Artotype A photo-engraved illustration made by one of the gelatine processes.

As new A description of the physical condition of a book offered for sale second-hand, often used in booksellers' catalogues, meaning 'almost indistinguishable from the condition of newness.'

Ascender That part of a lower-case letter projecting above the body. Also used of the letter as a whole.

Ashendene Press One of the most distinguished private presses of England, founded in 1895 by C. H. St. John Hornby, partner of the bookselling firm of W. H. Smith & Son. It was not until 1900 that at the instance of Sydney Cockerell fine printing as such was undertaken, and special type known as Subiaco from its Italian original, was commissioned. A later type, Ptolemy (1927) was based on an early German original. Some 30 books were printed in these two types, mostly enhanced by woodcuts, and some with coloured initials.

Aslib History Aslib was founded in 1924 with the title of Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux as a result of a conference held at Hoddesdon, Hertfordshire, on the initiative of a group of people working in the metallurgical research associations. The purpose set for it was to facilitate the co-ordination and systematic use of knowledge and information in all public affairs and in industry and commerce and in all the arts and sciences. While circumstances since its foundation have dictated that science and technology should prove the chief field of Aslib's activity, its aim to 'take all knowledge for its province' remains unchanged.

As with many organizations, the early years of struggling existence were years of solid achievement on infinitesimal material resources. In 1928, Aslib compiled and published, with financial help from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the *Aslib directory, a guide to sources of specialized information in Great Britain and Ireland*. It also contributed to the development of the Central Library for Students into the National Central Library, the establishment of the Union Catalogue of the London Borough Libraries and the Guildhall Library, and to the movement leading to the 1925 Committee on Patent Law Reform. During the Second World War, Aslib undertook such diverse tasks as having irreplaceable scientific periodicals preserved from the salvage drive; compiling, with support from the Royal Society and the Rockefeller Foundation, location indexes of European and Russian scientific journals; and establishing, in 1942, a microfilm service to supply on demand, from master negatives, microfilm

copies of any foreign technical publication available. This wartime work led to the decision of the British Government in 1944 to assist Aslib's work by annual and special grants to be given through the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. In 1949, the Association and the British Society for International Bibliography united to form a new body with the registered title of Aslib but without fundamental change in objectives. Members of both organizations had, in the previous year, taken an active part in the important Scientific Information Conference organized by the Royal Society; at this conference, methods of disseminating, abstracting, reviewing, classifying, indexing and selecting scientific and technical literature were reviewed for the first time on an Imperial scale.

Membership and organization

The membership of Aslib is now nearly 2,000 compared with 300 in 1940 and 1,000 in 1950. Approximately 35 per cent are industrial and commercial concerns, 10 per cent are public and national libraries, 10 per cent Government Departments and Government sponsored organizations, 10 per cent universities and colleges and 15 per cent learned societies and other non-profit organizations. The remaining 20 per cent consists of individuals interested in information service.

The controlling authority of Aslib is a Council, the majority of whom are elected by the British members. A Director is responsible for carrying out the Council's policies and both the Council and the Director are assisted by advisory committees concerned with conferences and professional education and with Aslib's international relations, publications and library and information department. Local and specialist activities are encouraged by the existence of local branches—at present, there are three covering Scotland, the North of England and the Midlands—and subject groups. Seven Groups now exist; they embrace aeronautics, chemicals, economics, engineering, food and agriculture, fuel and power and textiles. Both branches and groups enjoy considerable autonomy.

Services to members

As the principal focus of special library

activities in the United Kingdom, Aslib assists the special librarian or information officer in two principal ways: by supplementary information services depending largely on co-operation by member organizations, and by corporate activities such as meetings and conferences. A brief description of services and activities follows:

Enquiry Service Members may ask for information on technical, economic or any other specialized subjects. Information is not evaluated by Aslib or given on Aslib's authority, but is supplied either by reference to published literature or by putting the enquirer into touch with the correct source of the information sought.

Library A comprehensive collection is maintained of material on all aspects of special librarianship and information work, including the collection, recording and retrieval of information, translation, documentary reproduction and the dissemination of knowledge, as well as certain related fields such as office management and the book trade. Some 200 periodicals on these subjects are received regularly from various countries, and much of the material held is not available elsewhere in the United Kingdom. Members may borrow freely from the library and may ask for information on special library and information matters. In this field, Aslib does evaluate the information supplied and is willing to offer advice.

Consultant service Firms and other organizations wishing to establish or re-organize a special library or information department may engage Aslib as consultants to prepare recommendations and supervise their implementation. Individual information processes may be similarly investigated. The service covers premises, staff, planning of services, basic stock, records routines and other aspects.

Publications Five serial publications are at present issued by Aslib:

Journal of Documentation, devoted to the techniques of recording, organizing and disseminating specialized information. Quarterly, 40s. p.a.

Aslib Proceedings, containing papers and reports of discussions at Aslib meetings and conferences. Quarterly, 40s. p.a.

Aslib Book-List, a classified list of recommended

scientific and technical books in English, with brief annotations. Monthly, 21s. p.a.
Aslib Information, a bulletin of Aslib's activities and current developments in information work. Monthly, free to members only.

Index to Theses, a classified list of the titles of theses accepted for higher degrees in the universities of Great Britain and Ireland. Annually, 25s.

Aslib Yearbook, first ed. for 1956-57.

Corporate members receive the first four of these serials free. Aslib also publishes directories, manuals and other publications of use to information workers, e.g. *Handbook of special librarianship and information work* (W. Ashworth, ed. 1956, 50s.) and *The treatment of special material in libraries* (R. L. Collison, 1955, 12s. 6d.). A new version of the *Aslib Directory*, referred to earlier, is in the Press.

Two important publications prepared by independent Councils also owe much to Aslib's initiative. The *British union catalogue of periodicals*, financed by grants from the Rockefeller Foundation, was originally conceived and started by Aslib itself. The second publication, the *British national bibliography*, was the result of steady pressure from many sources, including Aslib, for a bibliographically exact record of the national output of print, catalogued on approved lines.

All Aslib publications are available at special rates to members.

Education Aslib does not at present give professional qualifications or provide extensive training courses. It does, however, organize short, introductory courses for beginners and refresher courses in special aspects of information work for senior staff. Its advice is always available to other teaching and examining bodies when required.

Inter-lending Many corporate members are willing to lend books and journals to other members direct or through Aslib.

Translations Index This is a check-list of unpublished translations of foreign scientific and technical articles made by numerous organizations in the principal countries of the Commonwealth. About 14,000 articles are recorded and 1,500 are added yearly. The purpose of the index is to help reduce duplicate translating and most of the translations recorded can be borrowed from their owners.

Panel of Translators About 150 part-time translators with both technical and linguistic qualifications are registered. Members are given the name and address of suitable translators on the basis of the subject and language of the material to be translated.

Panel of Indexers A small panel of part-time subject indexers is also kept for the use of members. They, too, have subject qualifications and indexing experience.

Staff Employment Register Candidates for employment in special libraries and information departments are invited to register with Aslib, and their names and qualifications are notified to member organizations having suitable vacancies. This register and the two panels mentioned above are licensed annually by the L.C.C.

Documentary Reproduction Service When a published printed document cannot be purchased, Aslib can usually locate a library copy, clear any copyright formalities that may be involved and supply a photocopy or microfilm of the original. Copies of material not held in the United Kingdom can generally be obtained through exchange arrangements with centres in many foreign countries.

Conferences and Meetings An annual residential conference and a series of evening meetings are arranged to enable members to meet each other, hear papers on subjects of professional interest and take part in discussion. Conferences on special subjects are held from time to time, and the Branches and Groups also organize meetings on subjects of special interest to their members.

Though direct services to its members play an important part in Aslib's activities, they do so principally as a means of helping to raise the general standards of information work and are largely educative in intention. Raising standards of work is, indeed, the mainspring of Aslib's existence and, in order to further that aim, plans are now being developed for systematic research into techniques, costs and services. Consideration is also being given to the establishment of some form of professional qualification as an incentive to information workers and a guide to employers. Study of the dissemination and use of knowledge is, more clearly than almost any other study, work which cannot go on in a vacuum,

and Aslib works closely, in consequence, with other organizations at home and abroad. It is the British national member of the International Federation for Documentation, and it follows with interest the work of the International Federation of Library Associations, the International Standards Organization and Unesco. It exchanges publications and has mutual assistance arrangements with a number of foreign association and information centres. In the United Kingdom, it is represented on bodies with such varied interests as the British Standards Institution, the British National Bibliography, the Institute of Recorded Sound, the National Central Library, the Standing Scientific Library and Technical Information Committee of the Advisory Council on Scientific Policy, the National Book League, the National Co-operating Body for Libraries (Unesco), the Royal Society Abstracting Services Consultative Committee and many others. It can in consequence be said of Aslib that it touches British life at many points, and it can safely be predicted that its influence will continue to grow relatively to the importance which the nation comes to attach to the efficient use of the accumulated knowledge of mankind.

L.W.

Association copy A book that gives evidence, through bookplate, special binding, autograph, presentation inscription, or marginal or other notes, of having had some special connection with the author, or some distinguished individual, or a celebrated library or collection.

Copies signed by the author for the trade, as a help to the sale of the book, are not considered true association copies (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Association of Assistant Librarians On 3rd July, 1895 the Library Assistants' Association was founded at a meeting at the Library Bureau. Its object was 'to promote the social, intellectual, and professional interests of its members, by meetings of a social character, by discussions on professional subjects, and in such other ways as may be suggested from time to time . . . All persons engaged in library administration, other than chief librarians, shall be eligible for election.' 'It was also emphatically stated that it was not the intention of the

Association to interfere with such questions as long hours, Sunday labour, &c.' wrote W.F. (W. W. Fortune?) in a note in *The Library* (7, 228).

The majority of members being assistants rather than those 'engaged in library administration'—all ten of the officers and members of the first committee save R. A. Peddie were employees in London municipal libraries—the first service rendered by the L.A.A. in its early years was educational. Frequent meetings addressed by members and visiting lecturers, 'ever circulators' or cumulative written contributions on a topic, obtained by passing a script on from person to person for written comment, and a study circle whose members answered questions printed in the *Library Assistant* and sent in their papers for voluntary examination and marking, all helped to this end in the absence of good cheap British text-books. The Association's second service lay in that, once established, it did concern itself with exactly such questions as hours of work and working conditions; witness a pioneer report on the subject published in the *Library Assistant* in 1911. Thirdly, the publication since 1898 of the *Library Assistant* added articles of permanent interest to the corpus of library literature. Fourthly, the beginnings of a library were accumulated and assistants were helped to purchase books at reduced rates over an extended period.

At a time when the Library Association was making little progress in the provinces, the L.A.A. developed branch organizations with great rapidity: the North-West Branch in 1899, Yorkshire in 1906, Irish (Belfast) in 1907, South Wales in 1908, North-Eastern in 1908 (on the affiliation of an independent association), Midland Branch in 1910, South Coast in 1912, Central Irish (Dublin) in 1913, a revived North-Western Branch in 1914, and in 1915 a West of Scotland Branch. Some of this enthusiasm was no doubt because assistants enjoyed no voting rights in the Library Association of that period. This pre-war enthusiasm is well recorded by Sayers in the *Library Assistant* for September-October 1945.

Strengthened after the 1914-18 war by the return of militant ex-service men, the

Association resumed its work. In 1922-23 its title was changed to the Association of Assistant Librarians, and its branches renamed Divisions. In 1926 the A.A.L. inaugurated correspondence classes. In January, 1930, the Association became a section of the Library Association, and a new phase of its history began. With the *Library Assistant* vigorously edited, at first by T. E. Callender, and typographically excellent, and with the Library Association's own correspondence courses transferred to its charge, the A.A.L. enjoyed a golden age. A second report on conditions of service in municipal libraries was published in 1932, edited by F. Seymour Smith. The publication of the A.A.L. 'Primers' began and useful pamphlets were issued.

With the semi-centenary of the A.A.L. in 1945, the Association seemed about to begin a period comparable to that after 1930. In the event several factors prevented this: (1) the development of full-time library schools, taking away many of those who would otherwise have made best use of the Association's facilities; (2) the recruiting difficulties of local authorities in the post-war period, eliminating the competitive keenness on which the A.A.L. thrived in the 1930's; (3) the entry into the library service of a higher proportion of graduates than before 1939, few taking any part in the Association's work; (4) the establishment of national standards of service for local government employees in the post-war N.J.C. *Scheme of conditions of service*; (5) so far as chief librarians are concerned, the establishment of the Society of Municipal and County Chief Librarians, founded to watch over their interests and status. Against these combined circumstances must be set the A.A.L.'s steady post-war expansion of its publishing activities, and the continuing importance of its correspondence courses for the intelligent student working in isolated areas.

Yet fundamental criticisms both of the role of the A.A.L. and its relationship with the Library Association have repeatedly been made. It is anomalous, critics have pointed out, that a body which includes prominent deputy chief officers should continue to style itself an assistants' association, while concerning itself with public protest at advertised inadequate salaries of only chief and deputy

ASTERISK

librarians. 'Junior' meetings of the A.A.L. were found necessary as early as November, 1922, to prevent the neglect of those for whom the Association had been founded. In its relationship with the Library Association the A.A.L. has seldom been happy. In the early 1920's the L.A.A. council was already recommending members to vote for L.A.A. members standing as candidates in Library Association Council elections, and since fusion with the Library Association friction between the interests of the A.A.L. and the L.A. Council has been at times open and on occasion dramatic.

The A.A.L., it has been said, has completed its historic mission: and the best tribute to a successful society is that it should cease to exist. Whether this be true or not, young librarians working in remote districts will continue to find value in that part of its work which corresponds with a students' section in analogous professional associations, and some such organization will no doubt fill an essential social need in the metropolitan area. The form in which this work continues matters little: what is important is that the vigour and talent which informed the Association in the years following fusion should continue to find fruitful outlet and permanent expression.

Annual reports, published in the *Library Assistant* (later *Assistant Librarian*); and articles in vol. 38, September-October, 1945; and vol. 48, April, 1955.

G.J.

Asterisk A star-like symbol (*) used in printing to indicate a marginal reference or footnote. Asterisks are frequently used as signatures, especially for preliminary matter or for cancels.

Asyndetic Descriptive of a catalogue which has no cross-references. The reverse of syndetic (*q.v.*).

Atlas A volume of maps, plates, engravings, tables, etc., with or without descriptive letterpress. It may be an independent publication or it may have been issued to accompany one or more volumes of text (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Attributed author The person to whom authorship of a book is ascribed, there being

no conclusive evidence establishing the authorship.

For cataloguing purposes such a book is entered under the name of the attributed author qualified by a phrase such as *supposed author*, the authority for the authorship supposition being given in a note.

Audio charging A form of transaction charging in which details of the loans are recorded on discs or tape. The loan serial number and details of book and reader are read into a microphone and a numbered transaction card is inserted in the book as in manual transaction charging. At the overdue stage missing cards represent books not returned and the appropriate sections of the record are played back and written or typed as overdue notices.

Andres, M. 'Practical aspects of photocharging.' *Univ. of Illinois Libr. School occasional papers*, No. 39, June, 1954.

[Includes description of 'audiocharger'.]

Bailey, T. 'Experiments with audio charging.' *Libr. J.*, 1950, 75, No. 12.

Eggen, J. A. 'Audio charging works here.' *Libr. J.*, 1952, 77, No. 14.

W.R.M.

Audit of accounts See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Author 1. The writer of a book, as distinguished from translator, editor, etc. 2. In a broader sense, the maker of the book or the person or body immediately responsible for its existence. Thus, a person who collects and puts together the writings of several authors (compiler or editor) may be said to be the author of a collection. Corporate bodies may be considered the authors of publications issued in their name or by their authority (*A.A. Code*).

Author analytic An entry under author for a part of a work or of some article contained in a collection (volume of essays, serial, etc.) including a reference to the publication which contains the article or work entered (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

E.g.

Sheridan, Richard Brinsley.

'The school for scandal.' (*In* Cohen,

Helen, ed. *Milestones of the drama*. 1940, pp. 182-265.)

Author authority file See NAME AUTHORITY FILE.

Author bibliography A list of the books and articles by, or by and about, an author.

Author catalogue A catalogue of author entries, alphabetically arranged, usually including added entries under editors, translators, etc., and entries under titles in the case of anonymous works. References are also made in the author catalogue from variant forms of authors' names, from pseudonyms, etc. and parts of names not used as headings.

Author entry An entry of a work in a catalogue under its author's name as heading, whether this be a main or an added heading. The author heading may consist of a personal or a corporate name or some substitute for it, e.g. initials, pseudonym, etc. (*A.A. Code*).

Author indentation See OUTER INDENTATION.

Author's copies The complimentary copies of his book given to the author by the publisher, usually six copies (*Book. Gloss.*).

Author's corrections New matter for insertion in proof stage, as distinct from correction by the author of printer's errors.

Author's edition 1. An edition of the collected or complete works of an author uniformly bound and having a collective title. 2. An edition authorized by the author (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Author's proof A proof showing corrections made by the author or editor; after it has been corrected by the printers' reader for composition errors. Any departures from MS. after proofing are made at the customer's expense.

Author's revise Proof bearing the author's or editor's corrections as distinct from proofs corrected at the press.

Authority file A list of the headings selected for use in a catalogue, compiled as an official work of reference by the cataloguers for use in

the cataloguing department. The file registers the approved form of each heading to eliminate further search should the same heading be required again for the cataloguing of later books.

Names of persons, places, corporate bodies, conventional titles of anonymous classics, and sacred works, titles of anonymous works, series titles used as headings for series entries, and names of subjects may all be entered in the authority file. Subject headings, however, are more often entered in a separate file (see also SUBJECT AUTHORITY FILE).

The file is usually compiled on cards or slips, vertically filed, a slip being made for each heading newly established. The form authorized for use as heading is shown exactly, as regards fullness, punctuation, capitalization, italicization, and for personal names, any additional designations, degrees, etc. included in the heading. The relationship of a personal heading to the book which occasioned the establishment of the heading (e.g. editor, translator, compiler, etc.) is not shown, since one person may act in different capacities with respect to different books.

As a reference tool, each slip cites also the name of the book which occasioned the heading, and the authorities consulted in deciding the correct form of heading. Tracings are also included, indicating references from alternative, secondary or partial forms of the heading, from pseudonyms, etc. Such see references are instituted in the same form as used in the catalogue, and incorporated in the authority file (see also NAME AUTHORITY FILE).

Authorized edition An edition issued with the consent of the author or the representative to whom he may have delegated his rights and privileges (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Autonym The real name of an author, as distinguished from a pseudonym.

'Autopositive' paper A Kodak sensitized silver halide paper which on exposure to light and developing becomes white—the exact opposite being the case with ordinary silver halide papers. A positive copy of a line original may thus be made by either reflex or transmission copying, the print having the same

'AUTOPOSITIVE' PAPER

tones as the original document. Its translucency enables it to be used as a master for making diazo copies. It can also be used to obtain at one exposure a positive 'right-reading' copy of a double-sided or opaque original by reflex copying. To obtain a satisfactory result the original in this case must be a document with

sharp contrast between the printing and the background. 'Autopositive' is a trade name.

Auxiliary schedules and tables See CLASSIFICATION and also articles on individual schemes.

B

Back The sewn or binding edge of the book; and that part of the case or binding, between the two joints, upon which the title and author's name usually appear.

Back lining Generally, the material used to line the back of a book.

Back margin The left-hand margin of a printed recto and the right-hand margin of a printed verso. In the ordinary book, the back margin is contiguous to the binding edge. Also known as inner margin, inside margin, gutter margin (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Back-up To print the verso of a sheet when one side is already printed; also termed perfecting.

Backing Bending over the folds at the back of a book. The shoulders so formed are called the 'backing joints.' The backing joints provide a location for the boards, a foundation for the hinge on which the boards open in use and a means of preserving the characteristic rounded back of the book in use.

Backlist The titles on a publisher's list which are kept in print because of steady year-by-year sale (*Book. Gloss.*).

Bacon, Francis, (*Viscount St. Albans*) Chart of Human Learning. 1623.

In *The advancement of human learning* Bacon discusses the arrangement of knowledge, and the framework of his arguments thereon may be reduced conveniently to a chart (Sayers, W. C. Berwick, *Manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955).

He considers division into:

History (Memory)	Poesy (Imagination)	Philosophy (Reason)
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which may be divided further into:

Natural History	Narrative	Divine
Civil History	Dramatic	Natural
	Parabolical	Human

These subjects may be subdivided again and again until the whole of knowledge at that period is embraced.

The *Decimal classification* of Melvil Dewey was influenced by Bacon's arguments.

Ballinger, Sir John, 1860-1933, the foremost Welsh librarian of his time, was successively Librarian of Doncaster, where he energetically publicized the library's services; of Cardiff, where he found a library impoverished by years of joint administration with the School of Science and Art, but formed a fine Welsh collection, of which a printed catalogue was issued in 1898, and initiated in 1907 a telephone enquiry service giving commercial information to businessmen; and of the newly formed National Library of Wales from 1909 to 1930. Here, unlike Archer, he adopted the Library of Congress classification, laid the foundation of a national collection to be known far beyond the Welsh border and gave much time to the organization of the Aberystwyth summer schools of library service held between 1917 and 1928.

G.J.

Barrett, Francis Thornton, 1838-1919, Librarian of the endowed Mitchell Library, Glasgow, and City Librarian of Glasgow, 1877-1914, devised an early form of staff 'indicator' while working in the Birmingham libraries in 1868, using pegs in numbered holes to denote books on the shelves. When a book was issued, the peg was removed from its hole so as to save other assistants the labour of going to the shelves for books already 'out.' Indicator illustrated in *Libr. World*, 1899, 2, 4-5.

G.J.

Base line The lowermost of the three imaginary framework lines on which letters are drawn.

Basic weight The standard weight of a ream of paper of given measurements; e.g. book paper rated as 'substance 60' would

BASIL

weigh 60 lb if cut to 25 × 38 in. Basic weight standards differ with special papers, e.g. newsprint.

Basil A leather prepared from sheepskin.

Baskerville, John (1706-75) A famous English printer and type founder of the 18th century. In turn, stone-cutter, writing master and manufacturer of japanned ware, about 1750 he turned his attention to type designing and printing, and in 1758 was elected printer to the University of Cambridge for ten years. His first work was a famous edition of Virgil (1757); other noted specimens of his art are editions of Milton (1758 and others in subsequent years), Juvenal (1761), Horace (1762), the Bible (1763), and a series of Latin authors (1772-73). Baskerville types are essentially modifications of Caslon, but are regarded as 'traditional' in that the differences are of bias and modelling and tend to resemble 'modern' face rather than 'old' style types.

Bastard title See HALF-TITLE.

Bastard type Type having the face larger or smaller than the size proper of the body, e.g. 10 point face on 11 point body. The resultant text appears open, as if leads had been used.

Battered Damaged type or blocks; similar to 'broken': broken letter.

Battledore An early form of primer, made of folded paper or cardboard, generally varnished on the inside, which, opened out, resembled in shape a horn book without handle (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Beard Blank metal sloping away from the actual face of a letter at its head and foot. Trimming the beard is often necessary to close up line spacing.

Bearers Type-high strips of metal arranged around pages of type when they are locked in formes from which electro-type plates are made. They appear as a black border on proofs.

Bed The movable part of the printing machine on which the forme is laid: as the machine is operated the bed slides under the platen, together with the type and paper, and enables the impression to be made.

Bell, John (1745-1831) English bookseller, printer, publisher, type founder and journalist. Introduced modern face, cut by Richard Austin under the influence of François Didot, about 1788; is credited with being the first to abolish the long 's' in printing.

Bembo A Roman type cut by Griffi for Aldus and first used in Bembo's *De Aetna* (1495). Has been shown to be the model followed by Garamond. Re-cut by Monotype in 1930.

Ben Day tints A mechanical process for producing additional effects on a printing plate especially with line blocks. Gelatine films or screens marked with a variety of conventional patterns are attached to the negatives from which line blocks are to be made, and the lines of the final image are enhanced by, e.g. shadows, or indications of tone.

Bevelled boards Bevel-edged binding boards, occasionally used for very large books. Usually the head, tail and fore-edges only are bevelled.

Bible paper A thin white opaque paper heavily loaded, used for printing Bibles and other books which it is required should have many pages in a small bulk. It is a highly absorbent paper unsuitable for pen and ink.

Biblia pauperum Literally, Bible of the poor. A type of medieval picture book, in either manuscript or printed form, containing illustrations of Scriptural subjects, with descriptive texts in the vernacular. It was one of the earliest block books printed in the Netherlands and Germany. It was reprinted several times in later years, most recently in 1884, with a preface by Dean Stanley (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Bibliographer 1. A person familiar with methods of describing the physical characteristics of books, who prepares bibliographies, catalogues and lists. 2. One who writes about books, especially in regard to their authorship, date, typography, editions, etc., one skilled in bibliography (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Bibliographic classification This classification (B.C.) is the chief product of Henry Evelyn Bliss's (1870-1955) life-work, and is

based on a profound study of the nature and history of classification, and of the preceding attempts at general classifications of knowledge and of books. The results of this study are given in the works published in 1929 and 1933 (see Chronological Table) and in the prefaces to the volumes of the classification.

History Although B.C. is regarded as a modern scheme, the following table shows its long history.

Chronological Table

1891: H. E. Bliss joined the library staff of the College of the City of New York (now the City College).

1903 (approx.) Work begun on the classification.

1908: The classification applied in the College library.

1910: First public announcement of the new classification.¹

1929: *The organization of knowledge and the system of the sciences*. New York, H. Holt.

1933: *The organization of knowledge in libraries and the subject approach to books* (2nd ed., 1939). This and all later works mentioned were published by the H. W. Wilson Co., New York, who also took over the 1929 book.

1935: *A system of bibliographic classification*. (The main classes and divisions only, with auxiliary schedules. 2nd ed., 1936.)

1940: H. E. Bliss retired from the City College.

A bibliographic classification, extended by auxiliary schedules for composite specification and notation. Vol. 1. *Introduction, anterior tables and systematic schedules, and classes A-G (Philosophy, logic, mathematics and the natural sciences)*.

1947: *Ibid.* Vol. 2. *Classes H-K, the human sciences*.

1952: *Ibid.* 2nd ed. of Vol. 1 and 2 without indexes. 2 volumes in 1. A pamphlet containing changes made was provided for owners of the 1st edition.

1953: *Ibid.* Vol. 3. *Classes L-Z. The special human studies: history of peoples and nations, religion, ethics and special social studies, languages and literature, bibliography and libraries*.

Ibid. Vol. 4. *General index . . .*
1954: Steps taken to facilitate co-operation

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CLASSIFICATION

between libraries using B.C., to amend and improve the classification.⁴ First issue by the H. W. Wilson Co. of the *Bliss classification bulletin*, edited by H. E. Bliss.

Principles Bliss's conclusions on the nature of classification can be summarized as follows: There is considerable agreement among experts on the ordering and arrangement of knowledge—"the educational and scientific consensus"—and this order, being the one most convenient and customary to learned men, is the proper basis for a classification of books. On such a system related subjects will be as closely collocated as possible, making it easy to use, and its stability, hospitality and flexibility will be greater than if the consensus had been ignored. Great emphasis is to be laid on careful development of schedules and apportionment of notation. The notation of a subject is commensurate with its importance in American (and to a large extent British) libraries.

B.C. is not, however, based on a rigid and unadaptable view of the order of knowledge. The 'consensus' is considered both incomplete and temporary. Alternative views on the placing of some subjects, large and small, are recognized, and alternative placings provided. B.C. is the first general classification with this feature. In general 'it combines the advantages of a clear and acceptable co-ordination of classes with a close and continual regard for the practical needs of a book classification.'⁵

Schedules and notation These are more useful than those of any other general scheme, being very full of detail and rich in synonyms and explanatory notes. Often several lines are devoted to discussing the extension and relations of a subject. References to related subjects scheduled elsewhere are plentiful. 'Again and again the classifier . . . is cheered by the ease and speed with which a book fits into its place in an obviously correct context.'⁶ This is largely due to the way the scheme, during development, was constantly tested against the collections of the City College Library, and modified as needed.

The order of main classes is as follows:

Anterior numeral classes

1. Reading room collections, chiefly for reference.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CLASSIFICATION

2. Alternative for Bibliology, Bibliography and Libraries, preferred in Z.
3. Select or Special collection, or Segregated books, etc.
4. Departmental or Special collections.
5. Documents, or Archives, of Governments, Institutions, etc.
6. Periodicals . . .
7. Miscellanea . . .
8. Collection of Historic, Local or Institutional Interest.
9. Antiquated books, or Historic collection.

A Philosophy and General Science, including Logic, Mathematics, Metrology and Statistics.

B Physics, including applied physics and special physical technology.

C Chemistry, including Chemical Technology, industries; Mineralogy.

D Astronomy, Geology, Geography, and Natural History, including Microscopy.

E Biology, including Paleontology, and Biogeography.

F Botany, including Bacteriology.

G Zoology, including Zoogeography and Economic Zoology.

H Anthropology, General and Physical, including the Medical Sciences, Hygiene, Eugenics, Physical Training, Recreation, etc.

I Psychology, including Comparative Psychology, and Racial, and Psychiatry.

J Education, including Psychology of Education.

K Social Sciences: Sociology, Ethnology, and Anthropogeography.

L History, Social, Political, and Economic, including Geography, historical, national (political), and Ethnographic . . .

M Europe.

N America.

O Australia, East Indies, Asia, Africa and Islands. Geography, Ethnography and History.

P Religion, Theology and Ethics.

Q Applied Social Science and Ethics.

R Political Science, philosophy, and ethics, and Practical Politics.

S Jurisprudence and Law.

T Economics.

U Arts: Useful, Industrial Arts, and the less scientific technology.

V Fine Arts and Arts of Expression, Recreation and Pastime.

W Philology: Linguistics, and Languages other than Indo-European.

X Indo-European Philology, Languages and Literatures.

Y English, or other, language and literature; and Literature in general, Rhetoric, Oratory, Dramatics, etc.

Z Bibliology, Bibliography and Libraries.

The anterior numeral classes include the subjects usually found in the *generalia* class of other schemes. Their numbers can be prefixed to particular class-marks, e.g. 6RN, for naval periodicals. The order of the main classes proper is very well chosen and gives a harmonious chain of subjects. The separation of pure and applied sciences has been avoided, though class U would be unduly large in many libraries. The title of class H is misleading; a better one would be 'sciences of the human body.' An interesting feature is the inclusion here of physical education and outdoor sports and games. The dispersion of geography in classes D, K, L, M, N, O and T reveals disagreement between the American consensus and that of Britain, where geography is regarded as a unitary subject. There are four ways of arranging languages and literature.

Bliss acknowledges help with classes H, I, K, P, Q, R, T and U, from four U.S. experts, four British librarians and one Argentinian. This does not mean that all the rest is purely the product of his own brain, but it does mean that the scheme is largely the work of one man. Some of its minor failings can be attributed to this, since every human being has blind spots.

The main notation is literal. This kind of notation is easy to use, and permits useful mnemonics. Bliss considered that a main class-mark need never exceed four letters. In most classes marks longer than three letters are rare. These short marks are usually obtained by dividing the subject two stages for each letter added to the class-mark. Thus UA is agriculture, UC animal industries and products, UCJ cattle, UCJD dairying, and UCJF milk production. Care must be taken in a

subject index to indicate the full extent of a subject, e.g. Agriculture UA/UC. Another device used can only be described as turning the notation inside out, e.g. physics is B, chemistry C, etc., but general science is AK.

Further subdivision beyond four letters is by no means excluded, and the scheme is provided with 22 auxiliary schedules and 24 supplementary adaptations of these. Three of these schedules can be applied wherever their use is appropriate. Schedule 1 for form is distinguished by numerical subdivision, e.g. C4 biography of a chemist, J7 a miscellany of education. It reflects class 1 to some extent. A naval periodical can be 6RN (*vide supra*) or RN6, depending on the decision taken about shelving of periodicals.

In addition to Schedule 1, X and Y are 'availably mnemonic' for pamphlets and miscellaneous materials respectively, if greater detail is not required. A is also frequently used for treatises. It would have been better to use letters for subject division and numerals for form; fortunately this is usually possible.

The remaining schedules for general use are for geographical division (choice of lower-case letter, or numeral notation), and language. The last, like most of the special auxiliary schedules, has upper-case letters, set off by a comma. Thus, taking Schedule II for systematic botany, the order Mimosaceae is FPM, its ecology FPM,M, and the genus *Mimosa* is FPMM. Readers are apt to ignore the comma in writing or speaking class-marks.

The schedules proper are reproduced by photolithography from the author's own typescript, and are very clear. The prefaces and indexes are printed typographically. The volumes are well-produced and not too large.

Index The relative index to the schedules given in Volume 4 contains approximately 46,000 entries, compared to 43,000 in the index to the 14th edition of the *Decimal classification*. Comparison suggests that the index to B.C. is better balanced geographically and nationally and by subject and free of freak composite subjects unlikely to be needed. It contains British spellings as well as American. It does, however, contain a number of mistakes as its compiler feared, due probably to his age and impaired sight. If

notations found in the index are checked in the schedules (as should always be done) these mistakes can gradually be corrected.

Evaluation Nearly 60 libraries (including some 15 school libraries) have adopted the scheme, of which the majority are small college or special libraries.⁴ Nearly all are in the British Commonwealth. No other North American library than the City College has adopted B.C., so far as is known. This number of libraries represents a remarkable success for a scheme which only became completely available in 1953.

The Bibliographic Classification is by any reckoning a remarkable achievement, and the compilation of the full schedules by one man with expert advice but little or no clerical help makes it unique. Its order, notation and scheduling have often been praised. It compares most closely with the Library of Congress classification, among other completed general schemes, while often providing less detail, and approaches the latter in hospitality and scholarly groundwork, while improving on its order of subjects, clumsy notation and inconvenient physical form. It is one of the most flexible classification systems ever produced, and the use of alternative placings contributes notably to this. Libraries of different sizes can use it easily in various degrees of detail, and helpful suggestions on this problem are numerous in the schedules.

The defects are minor ones. For example, it is perhaps unfortunate to have included many technical aspects of newspaper production and distribution in journalism, and of the cinema and radio in drama and the theatre (together with rodeos, shadow-plays and panoramas) and the whole in literature. Such infelicities are rare, and they are never the product of slap-dash work, but always justified in the author's opinion. Notational defects are more common, and include a tendency to leave few notational places free, the occasional use of bizarre symbols such as & and %, and inconsistent use of notation. Thus schedule 2 being universally applicable, lower-case letters should always indicate geographical division, but they are sometimes used for other purposes, thus: in chemistry water is ClG, but hydrogen peroxide is Clg. That the literal meaning of Clg (inorganic chemistry in Spain)

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CLASSIFICATION

is unlikely to arise is not relevant to the point. A library about to use B.C. can eliminate many of these notational defects; thus hydrogen peroxide can become CIGW.

A classification scheme without defects will never be produced, and those in B.C. do not alter the fact that it is the best scheme for any but very large general libraries, and for many special libraries, while it lends itself to the modifications which every special library needs. For a very full treatment with further references, see⁵.

- ¹ Bliss, H. E. 'A modern classification for libraries, with simple notation, mnemonics and alternatives.' *Libr. J.*, 1910, 35, 351-8.
- ² *Idem*. 'Books and articles on the organization of knowledge and bibliographic classification (a select bibliography).' *Rev. Docum.*, 1948, 15, 93.
- ³ Mills, J. 'Classifying by Bliss.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1950, 52, 370-2. See also comments in letters pp. 436-7, 471.
- ⁴ Campbell, D. J. and Freeman, C. B. Bliss classification: (two letters proposing co-operation, with a list of libraries using the Scheme). *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 198-9; 1954, 56, 26.
- ⁵ Sayers, W. C. B. 'The bibliographic classification of Henry Evelyn Bliss.' (In his *A manual of classification* . . . 3rd ed. (rev.) London, Grafton, 1955).

D. J. C.

Bibliographical classification The classification of books, pamphlets, etc., and their records (see also CLASSIFICATION.)

Bibliographical note 1. A note, often a footnote, containing a reference to one or more works used as sources for the work. 2. A note in a catalogue or a bibliography, relating to the bibliographical history or a description of a book. 3. A note in a catalogue mentioning a bibliography (often in the form of footnotes) contained in the book (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Bibliographical warrant See LITERARY WARRANT.

Bibliography Two of the four definitions of the term 'Bibliography' given in the *Oxford English Dictionary* have relevance here. Definition No. 2 reads: 'The systematic description and history of books, their author-

ship, printing, publishing, editions, etc.' Dibdin, Allibone and their followers used the word in this sense. Definition No. 4 reads: 'A list of books of a particular author, printer or country, or of those dealing with any particular theme; the literature of a subject.' The word is used in this sense in the title of W. Rowlands' *Cambrian bibliography: containing an account of the books printed in the Welsh language or relative to Wales, from 1546 to the end of the 18th century* (1869). In the analysis of the term which follows, a distinction is made between these two major applications of the term 'bibliography,' not overlooking 'historical bibliography.'

1. *Examination, collation and description of books.* According to Dr. Sir W. W. Greg,¹ bibliography is the study of books as material objects, irrespective of their contents; he maintains that the compilation of a bibliography, or list of books on a particular subject, 'must be the work of the expert in the subject with which it deals and not of the bibliographer.' On the other hand, Greg admits that a bibliography may include a detailed description of the books themselves (apart from their literary content), and in this sense the bibliographer requires a knowledge not only of the history of typography but also of bookbinding and papermaking, and—in the case of manuscripts—of palaeography and ornamentation.

Fifteenth-century books are obvious examples of the type of material to be studied as material objects, for the purpose of examination, collation and description: incunabula are rare, valuable and of great interest in the history of book production. But the study has now been extended to 16th, 17th, 18th and 19th-century books, and we see further evidence of it in the entries which appear in author bibliographies. In the sense that bibliographical investigation may throw an important light on textual problems (whether of the Shakespeare quartos or of 19th-century pamphlets, as in the case of J. Carter and G. Pollard's *Enquiry into the nature of certain nineteenth-century pamphlets*, in determining how literary texts have been transmitted, the correct order of printing, and the like, 'true bibliography is the bridge to textual, that is to say literary, criticism.'^{2a} Hence Cowley's

term, textual bibliography.² Dr. R. B. McKerrow's admirable statement on bibliographical evidence³ is in line with this approach.

In the precise terminology of Dr. Fredson Bowers,⁴ the field of study is termed 'descriptive bibliography,' and the results of the examination, collation and description of books are recorded in 'descriptive bibliographies.' The mere listing of books, for Bowers, belongs to the realm of cataloguing; he is concerned solely with 'the scholarly, descriptive bibliography in the analytical sense.' We may thus call the investigation *analytical or critical bibliography*; the results—*descriptive bibliographies*. The process of constructing and describing an 'ideal copy' of an edition is inseparable from analytical bibliography,^{4a} and must be thoroughly grasped. By 'ideal copy' is not meant complete freedom from textual errors and the like, but rather 'the most perfect state of the book as the printer or publisher finally intended to issue it in the issue described.'^{4b}

(a) *Examination* The points to be examined are usefully dealt with by J. D. Cowley⁵; they cover: title-pages (including ornaments and borders); imprints and colophons; incipits and explicits; binding and casing; preliminaries; imprimaturs; advertisements; text and collation; prefaces, dedications, etc.

(b) *Collation* The interpretation given to collation in Esdaile's *Student's manual*⁶ is too wide for our purposes. We are on safer ground in thinking in terms of the collation paragraph of the full standard description, although even here there is a difference of opinion. Format; the list of signatures (i.e. the collation proper); foliation or pagination—these are the minimum data.

(c) *Description* Short, medium and full standard descriptions are accepted as the normal types of entry, but there is, once again, divergence in interpretation.

Short description This form is economical for such purposes as a union list of books, e.g. Pollard and Redgrave's *Short-title catalogue of books . . . 1475-1640*, but it hardly constitutes bibliographical description.⁷

Medium description This form of entry, termed 'short standard description' by Esdaile,⁸ provides fairly full collation, with notes on the

individual copy of the book, and goes a little of the way towards establishing identity, but the description is still generic from the bibliographer's point of view. Handy examples of both short and medium descriptions may be found in the shorter and fuller entries in the Cambridge University Library's *Catalogue of the fifteenth-century printed books in the University Library, Cambridge*; compiled by J. C. T. Oates (1954). When incunabula have been adequately described elsewhere, a short or medium description plus a reference to a source of fuller information (e.g. the *Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke*) may well be judged adequate for location purposes.

Full standard description The objective in this form of description is to help establish the correct text. Seven paragraphs are formulated as making up the full standard description, in Esdaile's *Student's Manual*,⁹ with additional points on the description of incunabula. Excellent examples of the latter may be found in H. Guppy's *Rules for the cataloguing of incunabula* (1947), while F. Bowers' *Principles of bibliographical description*, Appendix II, provides a good range of sample descriptions. The word 'standard' is something of a misnomer, since there is some variation between the entries in these, in the British Museum's *Catalogue of books printed in the XVth century*, and in the *Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke*.

2. *Historical bibliography* Cowley¹⁰ defines this as the study of book production and publication in general, claiming that it is the one major aspect of bibliography which can be termed a science (i.e. 'a field of knowledge or knowing which is worth while approaching for its own sake'). Implicitly it forms a considerable part of the coverage of Esdaile's *Student's manual of bibliography*, but Percy Freer's *compendious Bibliography and modern book production* (1954) treats book production as a separate, though allied, study.

3. *Systematic and enumerative bibliography* G. Schneider¹¹ has uncompromisingly defined Bibliography as 'the study of lists of literature,' adding that the lists themselves are generally termed bibliographies. J. D. Cowley¹² has more judiciously termed the field subject bibliography—a method: the cataloguing and description of material as a preliminary to the study of a subject.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The term 'bibliographical apparatus' conveniently expresses the range of the types of bibliographies which can be brought into play, given a subject. Broadly, these types cover universal, national and trade bibliographies; author and subject bibliographies; catalogues of libraries; publishers' and book-sellers' catalogues; lists of and indexes to periodicals; abstracting journals; bibliographies of bibliography; bibliographical manuals; bibliographies in reference books; annual literature surveys, and the like. Examples are given in *The final examination*, Part 1: *Bibliography and book selection*, by A. J. Walford (A.A.L. Guides to the Library Association examinations, 1954), pp. 8-11. To be up-to-date in the matter of subject bibliography, we must also be aware of the scope of mechanized information retrieval, particularly in its latest form—the minicard.

At what point does the select bibliography dwindle into the reading list? The distinction seems to be largely functional. The reading list provides a short reading course, often systematically arranged; it may be appended to an article or be used as an adjunct to a lecture, as 'further reading'; it may well cater for different levels of user. The selective bibliography is still, basically, a bibliography, easily recognizable in such works as Constance Winchell's *Guide to reference books*, but less recognizable in the shape of a short literature-survey (e.g. *English local history handlist*. Historical Association, 1952).

Bibliographies, covering as they do everything which is written or printed, will also cover maps, illustrations, songs and, by extension, music in the form of gramophone records ('discographies') and thematic catalogues.¹³ The range of what are termed national bibliographies has similarly broadened to include dissertations, audio-visual aids and the like.^{13a}

The way in which bibliographies are arranged is clearly of importance to the searcher, although an excellent index may compensate for an inadequate main-entry order. Practice is well surveyed by Cowley¹⁴ and Esdaile,¹⁵ while M. V. Higgins¹⁶ succinctly covers the field of compilation of bibliographies.

¹ Greg, W. W. 'Bibliography—a retrospect,'

in *Bibliographical Society*, 1892-1942, (1945), pp. 23-31.

^{1a} Greg, W. W. 'Bibliography—an apologia,' *Library*, Fourth Series, 1953, 13, 121-43.

² Cowley, J. D. *Bibliographical description and cataloguing*. 1939, p. 7.

³ McKerrow, R. B. *An introduction to bibliography*. 1927, pp. 1-2.

⁴ Bowers, F. *Principles of bibliographical description*. 1949, Chapter 1.

^{4a} Foxon, D. *The technique of bibliography*. 1955, p. 6; Bowers, F. *op. cit.*, pp. 6-8, etc.

^{4b} Bowers, F. *op. cit.*, p. 113.

⁵ Cowley, J. D. *op. cit.*, Chapter 3.

⁶ Esdaile, A. *A student's manual of bibliography*; revised by Roy Stokes. 1954, Chapter 7.

⁷ Mallaber, K. A. *A primer of bibliography*. 1954, p. 182.

⁸ Esdaile, A. *op. cit.*, pp. 261-3.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 263-74.

¹⁰ Cowley, J. D. *op. cit.*, p. 7.

¹¹ Schneider, G. *Theory and history of bibliography*; translated by R. R. Shaw. 1934, p. 16.

¹² Cowley, J. D. *op. cit.*, p. 7.

¹³ Library Association. London and Home Counties Branch. *Handlist of bibliographies on exhibition at the Hastings Conference*. 1954, pp. 21-22.

^{13a} See Larsen, Knud. *National bibliographical services: their creation and operation*. 1953.

¹⁴ Cowley, J. D. *op. cit.*, Chapter 11.

¹⁵ Esdaile, A. *op. cit.*, Chapter 11.

¹⁶ Higgins, M. V. *Bibliography: a beginner's guide to the making, use and evaluation of bibliographies*. 1949.

For further reading and reference:

Francis, F. C. 'Bibliography,' in *Cassell's Encyclopaedia of literature* (1953); *Chambers's Encyclopaedia* (1950); *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (14th ed.).

Freer, Percy. *Bibliography and modern book production*. 1954.

Staveley, Ronald. *Notes on modern bibliography*. 1954, especially Chapters 7-9.

A. J. W.

Bibliothetical classification The classification of books on the shelves of a library (see also CLASSIFICATION).

Bifurcate classification otherwise known as **dichotomy**. In this method the genus, or

subject to be divided, is always divided into two parts, the species, and all that is not that species. The species can of course then become the genus and be divided again into two. The pairs so formed are often called positive and negative and a good example is to be found in the *Tree of Porphyry*.

It is interesting to ponder on the fact that modern digital computers or 'electronic brains' are based on electrical impulses, positive and negative, that when reduced to fundamentals can say yes or no only.

Sayers, W. C. B. *An introduction to library classification*. 9th ed., 1954.

Bin A shelf divided into sections analogous to pigeon holes for the filing of periodicals. The idea is modified in periodical display stands to consist of a hinged sloping shelf under which backnumbers are filed.

Bind-in To fasten securely into the binding; said of supplementary material (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Binder's brass A design or lettering usually cut in brass and used in blocking book covers. Also called binder's block.

Binder's title The title of a book as lettered on its spine by the bookbinder; frequently a shortened form of the full title as given on the title-page.

Binding See BOOKBINDING.

Binding-book In librarianship a register in which books sent to a binder for binding may be recorded, with particulars as to lettering, style, colour, etc.

Binding edge The edge of a volume, usually the back edge, that is to be attached to the binding.

Binding record A record of books sent to the binder. This may be the book-card, a duplicate of the binding slip, or a special record.

Binding slip A slip of paper containing instructions for binding the particular item which accompanies it to the bindery. Also called binder's, bindery and specification slip.

Biobibliography A list of books by many authors which includes brief biographical data about them (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Biographee One who is the subject of a biography.

Biographee entry The subject entry for a biography, i.e. the entry for a biography in a subject or name catalogue under the name of the biographee.

Biscoe time numbers A series of letters which stand for different periods from 1000 B.C. to A.D. 2000. Each letter is followed by figures, and these again, if necessary, by letters.

Books can be arranged chronologically by these numbers, although the U.D.C. method of putting dates in inverted commas is much more direct and effective.

Dewey, Melvil. *Decimal classification*. 13th ed., 1932.

Black-face See BOLD-FACE.

'Black' headings Headings in a dictionary catalogue other than subject headings. The term originates from the practice of many libraries in writing the subject headings in red, all others in black.

Black letter A generic term for the Gothic family of type, used indiscriminately for *textura*, *lettre bâtarde* or any non-roman types other than italic. Sometimes called Old English.

Blank An unprinted leaf which is part of a signature of a book.

Bleed illustration An illustration printed so that no surrounding margins are left.

Blind blocking The stamping of a design on a cover without the use of ink or gilt, done by means of a heated brass block, also called blind stamping.

Blind reference A reference in a catalogue, bibliography or index from one heading to another under which no entry is found (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Blind tooling 1. The process of tooling a design or lettering on the cover of a book without using gold. 2. The design thus produced on the cover.

Bliss, Henry Evelyn (Classification). See BIBLIOGRAPHIC CLASSIFICATION.

Block 1. A general term which covers line blocks, half-tones, electros, etc., produced by photographic processes. 2. A piece of wood engraved for printing. 3. A piece of wood or metal on which is fastened a stereotype or other printing plate to make it of type height.

Block book An early form of book produced by printing from wood-cut blocks. Extremely popular in the late 14th and throughout the 15th centuries, block books consisted of both text and illustration, and the standard form was printed on one side only, the verso illustration being pasted on the blank back. Later block books were sometimes printed on book presses. Notable examples are *Ars Moriendi* (c. 1450), the *Biblia Pauperum* and the *Speculum Humanae salvationis* (c. 1460-70).

Block print A print made from a wood or metal block cut in relief.

Blocking Pressing a design on to a book cover with or without metal foil, coloured foil or ink and using a brass block.

Blueprint process A contact transmission method of photocopying, employing paper sensitized with ferric salts, first used by Sir John Herschel in 1842. This process has long been used by architects and engineers as a cheap method of producing copies of plans and drawings. The original plan to be copied, usually drawn on linen tracing paper, is placed in contact with the sensitized paper. On exposure, ferric salts are reduced to the ferrous state, and the action of potassium ferricyanide produces the blue background. The lines of the drawing appear white on the print, which is a 'right-reading' copy. Positives may be taken by lithographic methods such as the 'Ordoverex' process. A positive blueprint paper was suggested by Herschel but was not made practical until 1877 when Pellet's process was introduced.

Blurb A description and recommendation of a book prepared by the publisher and appearing generally on the book jacket, coined by Gelett Burgess in 1907 (*A.L.A. Gloss., Book Gloss.*).

Board Usually strawboard or millboard, used to give rigidity to the cover of a book.

Board label The label pasted on the inside of the board to show ownership. In libraries it usually bears a few of the more important rules.

Bodoni, Giambattista (1740-1813) A printer of Parma, who designed the first 'modern face' roman types. At first under the influence of Fournier, he later developed independently and for a while his types displaced the Caslon and Dutch types. Bodoni types and those that developed from them, became known as 'modern,' and the others, which returned to popularity in the middle of the 19th century, as 'old style.' Characteristics of Bodoni type are mathematically vertical stress, hair line thin strokes, long descenders.

Body The solid shank of the letter on the top of which lies the printing surface. Size of body, i.e. measurement from back to front is constant throughout any single fount.

Body type Type suitable for reading matter (8-14 point) as in the text of a book, as distinguished from display type, used in headings, display lines in advertisements, etc.

Bold face A heavy type, frequently used in contrast with type of ordinary weight or colour. Many typefaces have their own bold-face, i.e. type of the same design, but in a heavier version. Also called 'block face,' 'full face' or 'Clarendon' after a much used 19th century fount of that name.

Bolt The folds at the head, tail and fore-edge of a printed sheet as made up for the binder. When the folded sheets are sewn together, the binder usually trims the edges thus removing the bolts.

Bone folder A flat piece of bone several inches long and about one inch wide, used for folding paper and in other bookbinding operations.

Book auction sales The method of selling books by means of an auction sale was first introduced by the Elzevirs, who in 1604 from their house in Leyden disposed of the library of George Dousa in this manner. The idea

quickly gained favour and by 1676 had spread to England when William Cooper, a bookseller in Little Britain, sold by auction the library of Dr. Lazarus Seaman. Lawler states that between 1676 and 1700 upwards of a hundred book auctions were held in London and the provinces, some in inns or the owners' houses, others quite frequently at the fairs.

The sales were not confined solely to secondhand books. It became a common practice for booksellers (publishers) to offer by auction their surplus stocks of books or sheets, the purchasing bookseller frequently destroying three-quarters of his purchase to increase the value of his remainder. Nevertheless these book auctions did result in a more widespread distribution of books within the means of a greater public. Eventually some booksellers turned solely to auctions as a method of disposal and became travelling auctioneers. Of these, Edward Millington and John Dunton were probably the most remarkable. Finally in 1774, Samuel Baker, a bookseller, opened rooms as the first regular book auctioneer. John Sotheby entered the business in 1778 and the firm is now world famed under the style of 'Sotheby & Co.' The principal book auctions in England have been held in one or other of the rooms of Christie, Hodgson, Puttick or Sotheby, and in America in the rooms of Parke-Bernet or Swann Auction Galleries.

The catalogues of the earlier auction sales are more interesting than useful. Certain bibliographical facts can be ascertained from them, but usually the description of the items offered is sparse and of little value to-day. Many, however, have interesting prefaces. In modern times much research is put into the compiling of important book auction catalogues; many are illustrated, and frequently become valuable bibliographies.

The dispersal of large important libraries has always been a question of dispute. Many believe, as did Evelyn, that the fruits of long and patient collecting should be kept intact for posterity, by ensuring that the library remains housed in an institution, where usually the books become available for reference. Several British and American universities owe their remarkable libraries to benefactors of this school of thought. On the other hand it is argued that if libraries were never dispersed

by some form of sale that split the collection into small units (and the auction appears to be the most satisfactory method), other libraries could never be formed. Certainly the great libraries of the new world could never have been built so speedily, if at all, without the fortuitous decision to place similar libraries in the sale rooms. Henry E. Huntington, who formed his library in what is probably record time, purchased approximately one-quarter of the W. Poor sale (New York, 1908-9), and 5,500 lots from the Hoe sale. The duplicates of the Huntington Library themselves when sold extended to 15 sales.

Present day book auctions, however, are no longer the happy hunting-ground of the individual book collector. Dibdin delights in describing auction battles between Lord A. and Sir X.Y., bidding in person, whereas to-day, as Burton wrote: '... the biddings being nearly all by dealers while gentlemen collectors are gradually moving out of the field.'

It is impossible to record all but a few of the important libraries that have passed through the sale rooms, and many valuable books are constantly sold that may be put into the sale as an individual item. Some of the more important sales are the Ashburnham, Beckford, Christie-Miller, Harnsworth, Heber, Huth, Laing, Roxburghe and Sunderland. Such sales often extend over many months or even years. The Huth sale took eleven years and the items sold for over £278,000—a figure that was easily beaten in 1927 by the £650,000 received by the Christie-Miller sale. The Hoe sale in 1911 was one of the largest ever held in America.

Sale Prices

Book Prices Current (commenced by J. H. Slater in 1887-).

Book Auction Records (originally named 'Sale Records,' Frank Karlslake, 1903-).

American Book Prices Current (New York, 1895-).

Historical

Lawler, John. *Book auctions in England (1676-1700)*. 1898. Contains a chronological list of the book auctions of the period.

Slater, J. H. *How to collect books*. 1905. Contains one chapter on auction sales with a list of

BOOKBINDING

the principal auctions held since the commencement of the 19th century to 1905, with total amounts raised.

Wheatley, H. B. *Prices of books*. 1898. Contains three chapters on auction sales of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries.

Sotheby & Co. A brief history of this firm can be read in *J. of the Westminster Chamber of Commerce*, 1954, 3, No. 6.

General works describing sales

Curwen, H. *History of booksellers*. 1873.

Dibdin's various works.

Burton, J. H. *Book hunter*. 1862.

Roberts, W. *Rare books and their prices*. 1895.
G.E.H.

Book bin 1. A space in a loan desk in which books are placed while waiting for later discharging routine or pending return to the shelves. 2. Any similar receptacle in which books are kept, e.g. when withdrawn from the shelves.

Bookbinding Bookbinding may be defined as the art of attaching stout covers by means of tapes or cords to the sewn gatherings of a book for their protection and convenience of handling; and as originating when the codex form displaced the rolled manuscript.

This protection, which may be of wood, millboard, strawboard, parchment or similar durable material, is usually made attractive by coverings which in turn may receive ornamentation of various kinds. The coverings of the boards have been traditionally of leather, e.g. goat, sheep, calf, pig or deer skin and textiles, such as velvet or coarsely woven material similar to buckram. Ornamentation has taken the form, firstly, of elaborate attachments of jewelled metal work or carved ivory; later, of formalized patterns, e.g. flowers, leaves, blind stamped into the leather, and after the 16th century, gold tooled patterned work. Certain characteristic minor forms of ornament exist, such as painted lines or panels, as in St. Cuthbert's Gospel Book (c. 7th century) and the interesting 14th century painted pictorial wooden bindings from Italy. The earliest ornamental bindings reveal a high degree of luxury commensurate with the value of the manuscripts, but stand somewhat apart from the utilitarian bindings which form the great majority of extant work

and are perhaps more to be treasured as artistic productions than as bindings.

Surviving medieval bindings are mainly ecclesiastical in origin or ownership, and it appears that the early attempts at ornamentation were often repeated patterns of identity marks. More elaborate panel stamps and roll stamps appear in the 14th and 15th centuries and argue a high degree of skill in engraving and in leather work. Some of these stamps bear initials, perhaps of the craftsman, and many examples of recurrent tools have led to hopes that comparative study will throw light on the early history of bookbinding, to which few names may at present be reliably attributed and hardly any dates. Most unfortunately, the book collectors of the 18th and 19th centuries only too frequently had their early bindings replaced by contemporary leather, thus destroying much material of the greatest value.

With the introduction of gold tooling, first into Italy (c. 1480) from the Levant, and then into France (c. 1500), much more information is available. French book collectors, e.g. Grolier, Tory and de Thou, greatly encouraged the newly developed art and it is from the various schools of binding, e.g. in Paris and Blois that some of the finest examples came. Western binders have not generally favoured the typical Oriental style of sunken ornamental painted or gilded panels, but have preferred to build up from small tools, themselves of interesting design. The pre-eminent Western styles may be summarized as (i) the Grolier Interlaced Strapwork, with the characteristic motto—*Io: Grolierii et Amicorum*, much imitated by other collectors; (ii) Fanfare, an elaboration of formal acanthus or palm leaves, flowers, tendrils and other ornaments, associated with Nicolas and Clovis Eve in the late 16th century; (iii) *Pointillé* or *à la du Seuil*, a studied simplicity of small tooling over the whole surface of fine red morocco leather; a style associated also with an anonymous early 17th century binder of the soubriquet 'Le Gascon,' but better with Florimond Badier (c. 1650); (iv) Dentelle, the imitation of elaborate lace borders around a plain centre panel, with or without a monogram; associated with the University of Paris Guild of

Binders in the 18th century, but especially with the families of Derôme and Padeloup; (v) Mosaic or Inlaid Leather of various colours worked into patterns, practised extensively in the 18th century by Le Monnier; (vi) *à la cathédrale*, a fashionable early 19th century revival, associated with Thouvenin, featuring Gothic architectural designs, with elaborate filigree work, considered in keeping with contemporary tastes.

Although the principal schools of binding are French, the English bookbinders have made notable contributions to the art since Berthelet introduced gold tooling or 'binding in the Venetian manner' during the reign of Henry VIII. Prominent names of craftsmen or their commissioning bibliophiles include Mearne who, binding for Charles II, is credited with introducing the 'Cottage Style'; the Harley brothers, whose magnificently bound red morocco volumes are such an ornament in the British Museum; Roger Payne, in the latter part of the 18th century and early 19th century, perhaps the greatest of them all, notable for his careful craftsmanship, his originality and his ingenuity in the design and manufacture of tools and for the purity of his schemes of ornament; Charles Lewis who bound for Grenville; Kalthoeber and Bedford.

All these elaborate designs require not only the use of fine-grained leather, e.g. morocco, but also the hollow back technique of binding, and objections have been raised to the former as concealing the beauty of the leather and to the latter as tending to weakness of construction. Modern taste has certainly moved towards greater simplicity of decoration and a corresponding emphasis on strength in construction.

By 1830, the craft binder had for the first time to face competition. Hitherto, the custom had been for the purchaser of the book to commission a binding; the book normally being available only in sheets or sewn in coarse blue paper covers. But, around 1820, various experiments perfected a cheap cloth suitable for receiving the impression of gold tools or lettering, and the practice of issuing books directly in 'publishers' cloth' rapidly became general until by the mid-century, it is exceptional, though still possible, to find

books issued otherwise. Occasional examples occur of books issued in cloth of various colours in half or quarter leather and also, apparently, in sheets, thus presenting bibliographers with an interesting problem of precedence.

The 19th century is also the age of the commercial binders, some of whom reach a high standard of achievement. Librarians will be familiar with the names of Bedford, Riviere and Zaehnsdorf, to mention but a few whose work still appears on the shelves of many libraries. Of particular interest, perhaps, are the bindings of Edwards of Halifax, in which the boards are frequently hand-painted and covered with transparent vellum. The book, in addition, often received fore-edge painting. Towards the end of the century, the general revival of interest in book production brought about a corresponding revival in bookbinding, and the private press movement had associated with it many notable binders, such as Cobden Sanderson, Ricketts and Cockerell. More recently, the bindings made at the Gregynog Press have set a standard of individual craftsmanship which we are not likely to see surpassed. In the same period, the historical study of binding received much attention, e.g. the pioneer work of Prideaux and the enquiry into the standards of material required and the conditions of preservation, e.g. by Cedric Chivers and the Royal Society of Arts, with a view to combating the obvious deterioration in modern leathers. No fundamental conclusions were, however, reached in this enquiry until modern chemical techniques focused attention on the harmful washing processes that had been employed in dyeing leathers during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. There are now available preparations for dressing leather bindings which will arrest decay if started, or, if used in time, postpone its incidence almost indefinitely. All old leather bindings should receive careful treatment with some recognized preservative, and staff should be instructed how to prevent damage from the metal bosses, corners or clasps, and to avoid over-compression on shelves. Excess heat and lack of ventilation should be equally guarded against. Given such precautions and reasonable use, the life of leather bindings appears to equal that of the

BOOK BOXES

book itself; with modern papers, the standard of binding will be matched carefully with the likely use and value of the book, if due economy is to be observed.

Rising costs and labour shortage have encouraged experiments in new forms of binding technique, particularly since the Second World War. Modern commercial binderies are already highly mechanized, but efforts are constantly being made to eliminate costly processes, such as sewing, by means of, e.g. plastic adhesives and to replace leather by cloth or cloth by cheap plastic materials. The unsewn bindings depending on plastic adhesives have not proved practicable for library purposes and are unlikely to win favour among bibliophiles, but the substitute fabrics, especially the waterproof ones, deserve careful attention. An interesting development much used in Sweden and in this country for limited editions, but suitable perhaps to the private owner only, is the substitution for cloth of marbled end-papers in conjunction with cloth or leather spines.

The contemporary emphasis, especially in commercial binding, is on cheapness, gaudy colouring and quick production, and the traditional handcraft of binding seems to have little place in such a world. It is encouraging, therefore, to find that there still survives a small, but steady, demand for bindings at once permanent and artistic in the truest sense, and that increasingly our great libraries, university and public, are tending to set up their own binderies, worked by hand craftsmen who bind to individual specification and are not stultified by mechanical mass production.

R.N.L.

Book boxes Boxes, usually of standard sizes, in which books are transported between libraries, often made in plywood for lightness.

Book card A small card which bears details of a book and is used in recording loans. It usually carries the accession number, class number, author and title, the item used for filing appearing first in bolder type.

Book carriage A single platform, or two reciprocating spring platforms, on which a

book is held by clamps for microfilming. The platform slides back and forth, on a runway to bring opposite pages of the book into the field of exposure (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Book cloth Cotton or linen cloth (coloured, sized, glazed, and/or embossed or otherwise processed) designed for book covers (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Book-collecting By book-collecting we mean the assembly of books which in their form, contents or the history of the individual copy, possess some permanent element of interest; also of books that are rare in the sense of not being easily procurable. And this element of rarity in a book increases, of course, as the history of printed books grows longer; for with the vast increase in the number of printed books, 'bibliophily' is to-day very much more complicated than it once was.

Individual bibliophiles existed almost from the earliest days of the circulation of printed books—especially in Italy, where Petrarch and Boccaccio both amassed collections. In England, Richard de Bury (1287–1345) was reviled by his contemporaries for his bibliomania; but his influence on Edward III may have stimulated his patronage of Chaucer and Froissart. On the whole, however, the systematic collecting of books by individuals did not begin until the 16th century, and was due to two linked causes: the Reformation and the Renaissance. The former, especially in England, scattered those books (largely theological but also including vernacular works) which had been housed in the monasteries; whilst the New Learning inspired scholars and rich men ambitious for culture throughout the more advanced parts of Western Europe. Poor scholars, without influence, like John Free of Bristol, for example, could journey from Oxford to Ferrara, Padua and Rome, where wealthy humanists and bibliophiles would welcome them on equal terms, and the palaces of princely Renaissance collectors would be thrown open to them. In the latter half of the 16th century many of the great libraries of the Continent were founded, such as the great Papal Library and the Library of Bavaria by Albert V and Fugger; whilst the Medicis, Pope Leo X, Maximilian I, Ferdinand I and

Julius of Brunswick were some of those who were foremost in helping to form the important collections.

In England development was somewhat later. Henry VIII's suppression of the monasteries scattered their contents and books were dispersed far and wide as being of little value, until the devotion of scholars such as Archbishop Parker and Robert Cotton brought some together. Wholesale destruction of books owing to the 'No Popery' fever was somewhat mitigated by the formation of Oxford and Cambridge college libraries by devoted men such as Bishops Fox and Fisher; John Leland, Keeper of the King's Library, made a 'labourous journey and serche'; Bale continued this work and compiled the first bibliography of English writers. The most important names after Cotton are those of Robert and Edward Harley, 1st and 2nd Earls of Oxford, whose great collection of MSS. later became one of the nuclei of the British Museum Library. But not all the work was done by rich men: during the Civil War, for instance, Thomason the bookseller collected the pamphlet literature of the war, and Humphrey Dyson contemporary proclamations and books from early English presses.

By the end of the 17th century book-collecting was in full swing all over Europe; in 1676 book auctions were introduced from Holland into England, and very soon priced catalogues were making their appearance. From these we can note the taste for Caxtons and that the books prized by collectors were beginning to differentiate themselves from the theological works that formed the great mass.

Collectors up to the second or third quarters of the 18th century tended to think in terms of the eventual public ownership of their books, rather than of collecting as being an individualistic pursuit. Sir Thomas Parker bequeathed his books to Queen's College, Cambridge; Archbishop Parker his to Christ Church, Cambridge; Sir Thomas Bodley re-founded the University Library at Oxford, which was also enriched by Laud and Selden; Archbishop Marsh founded a library in Dublin. Without these, and many more such benefactors, the learned libraries could scarcely have existed.

The Harley printed books were sold, but

the MSS. were offered to the nation very cheaply, as was also Sir Hans Sloane's great collection of 50,000 books. These, together with what remained of the Cotton MSS. (vested in trustees for public use in 1702), led to the foundation of the British Museum Library in 1753, which was opened in 1757. This was soon enriched by George II's gift of the Old Royal Library, books belonging to the kings and queens of England from Henry VII and including the collections of Cranmer and Lords Arundel and Lumley. A number of other valuable collections, and also the scientific books of the Royal Society, eventually found their way into the British Museum.

The great Continental libraries show the same process: the Bibliothèque Nationale was the continuation of the old Royal Library, gradually added to and immensely enriched by confiscated collections during the Revolution; though the Bibliothèque Mazarin was conceived of from the first as a public library. In Spain, the Escorial Library, inaugurated by Philip II, was largely built up by private gifts. The Berlin Royal Library originated from monastic libraries at their dispersal, was nursed by Frederick the Great, and during the 19th century was enlarged by many private donations.

It was not until the third quarter of the 18th century that the majority of collectors began to think in more personal terms of libraries being kept in the family, as were Thorold's and Miller's and Holford's; or dispersed at their deaths by sale as were Heber's and Halliwell's. Heber is said by Lowndes to have 'united the judgment of a Cotton with the princely munificence of a Harley.'

And so began the era of book-sales—and thus the chance of the smaller, less wealthy collector—for public ownership of rare books naturally removes them from the sale-room for ever. The names of these pioneers are celebrated by the bibliographer and book-hunter abroad, the Rev. Thomas Frognall Dibdin, as well as by William Thomas Lowndes. A signal event was the sale of the Duke of Roxburghe's large library, which occupied 42 consecutive weekdays in 1812, and in which a First Folio of Shakespeare fetched £100. The current taste of collectors ran in favour of

BOOK-COLLECTING

early printing and illumination, for fine bindings by the great masters: that is, the sheer beauty and form of the book was of paramount importance. At this sale, much excitement was caused by the competition between Earl Spencer and the Duke of Marlborough for an edition of Boccaccio: Marlborough paid £2,260 for it, at his death Spencer bought it for £750, and it passed eventually by bequest into the John Rylands Library, Manchester. The result of the sale was the formation of the notable Roxburghe Club of collectors. Heber, a very omnivorous and catholic collector, had left four houses in England full of books, as well as several on the Continent. He is said to have spent £100,000 on his collection, but its sale (1834-37) was a financial failure—the result partly of the end of a great inflationary period. The books of Sir M. M. Sykes, of J. B. Inglis and George Hibbert were all sold in the 1820's; but the great library of William Beckford, rich in fine bindings, was saved until 1882. At the death in 1908 of Mrs. John Rylands, the magnificent Althorp Collection belonging to the Spencers, and other fine collections, permanently enriched the John Rylands Library opened to the public in 1899 in Manchester.

W. H. Miller bought many books from the Heber library, and these became the foundation of the great Britwell Library, the greatest collection of the century of rare early English books. But although the auction-sales were the battle-grounds of rich collectors, the antiquarian booksellers were of equal importance to them: such men as Lilly, Longman, Toovy, Bohn, Thorp and Payne. Prices rose again after the Heber slump. Examples of early 19th century prices are: a fine copy of a 1532 Chaucer, £21; Spenser's *Colin Clout*, £3 3s.; Herrick's *Hesperides*, £2 12s. 6d.; *The white devil* and *Duchess of Malfi*, 6s. each; Donne's *Poems*, 10s. 6d.—such low prices being the result of the prevailing taste for fine format. Lowndes's *Bibliographer's manual* (1834) abounds with similar astonishing examples. Rebinding of old books in the finest materials was general.

Any section of an 18th century comprehensive library might have been regarded as a collection in itself. But now, the less wealthy

entering the field, and with less house-room available, the small and more specialized library came to be the more normal one: known first as a 'cabinet collection,' because it could often be housed in a single bookcase. Perhaps H. Perkins was the pioneer of these; the most perfect was the 'Rowfant Library' of F. Locker-Lampson, which took up only two small cases, and was so well chosen that not only was every book a treasure in itself but also appeared essential to the collection. This set a fashion.

There were many dispersal sales from the 1880's onwards, the names outstanding in this period being Huth, Hoe and B. B. MacGeorge of Glasgow, who was one of the first to take an interest in modern books. The interest of American collectors tended at first to be confined to 'Americana'; but soon they entered the European and English markets in full flood and have remained in strength; and so, accordingly, New York sales came to assume their due importance. The developments around the turn of the century were two: the interest in moderns, and a great spurt in bibliographical labour. In the '70's H. Buxton-Forman had started private facsimile reprints, his interest being mainly in the 'Romantics'; and he was followed by T. J. Wise. These two exercised an enormous influence over the last 15 years of the century. Gone was the interest in format, and in rebinding sumptuously. A romantic interest in a book's original (or 'mint') condition took its place, and rebinding thus became a crime. The taste for 'moderns' grew feverishly; they rose in price; and the craze for first editions sometimes reached silly heights with the appearance of a new type of collector: one with a keener nose for sensationalism than for important books. And along with this, of course, all sorts of commercial speculation of a vulgar sort. At the same time, bibliographical technique was becoming more exact. Throughout the 19th century Lowndes's *Manual* (which was revised by Henry G. Bohn in the '50's and issued in a popular edition in 1885), together with the sale catalogues of great libraries, had been the only available guides. The five-volume catalogue of Huth's library, with full titles and collations, was an advance in method. Now began to be compiled many

bibliographies of 19th century authors, and there was memorable work by the members of the Bibliographical Society.

The 1914-18 war had less bad effect on the trade than the 1939 war; indeed, the 1920's were for some the golden years when 'room' prices soared in response to bids on behalf of American collectors. Yet the war had had a disintegrating effect, for the chaotic conditions of the 20's boom was, in common with almost everything else in trade, followed by the depressing slump of the '30's. A. E. Newton (1863-1940) was probably the most internationally famous book-collector of his time. He caused something of a stir by paying \$62,500 for a First Folio. His *Amenities of book collecting and kindred affections* (1918) became a best-seller and no doubt did much to set the fashion for the twenties. With him passed the last representative of the type of private collector whose picturesque personality and idiosyncrasies impress the multitude and at the same time command the respect of the learned bibliophile.

Since 1952 a quarterly periodical *The Book Collector* has provided dealers and buyers in the antiquarian book market with erudite and expert advice on rarities and 'points.' The publication is in itself an indication of the specialized knowledge which has grown up in the last hundred years.

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Savage, Ernest A. *Old English libraries: the making, collection and use of books during the middle ages*. 1911.

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F.S.S.

Book conveyor A mechanical device for carrying books from place to place, which

operates on the endless-chain principle. Pre-selection devices ensure discharge of books at specified service points.

Book end A movable device, usually a block of wood or a right-angled piece of metal intended to hold books upright on a partly filled shelf.

Book-entity A word used by L. A. Burgess to embrace in a book '... the precise subject-matter or topic; subordinate or co-ordinate topics introduced; implied relationship of the book's topic (or topics) with others outside the immediate scope of the book; the special locality and/or period limiting the scope of the book; the author's special point of view; the special class of readers to whom the book is addressed and the form in which it is presented ...'

'The future of classification.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1948, 50, 16.

Book hand A formal handwriting used by scribes in preparing books as distinguished from the cursive hand used for letters, accounts and other records. Book hands are described as, *inter alia*, uncial, Caroline minuscule, gothic and humanistic, and vary according to national background and dates.

Book holder In documentary reproduction processes, a box with hinged glass top and two reciprocating spring platforms within, used to hold bound materials immovable and flat while being photographed.

Book lift A machine for carrying books from one floor or stack level to another, operated by hand or by power for loads of up to about 1 cwt. The hand operated booklift is a simple and cheap device and may be used for vertical travel up to three tiers. Above that an electrically operated lift is recommended.

Book number A combination of letters and figures used to arrange books in the same classification number in alphabetical order. It usually consists of an author number, a work mark and volume or copy number.

Book paper Text paper for books. Usually classed as featherweight, antique, wove and laid, M.F. printing. Book papers vary considerably as to colour and surface, and should

BOOK REST

be considered when choosing the type for the text.

Book rest A portable wooden device similar to the music rest of a piano which is placed on a table or desk to hold a book at an angle convenient to be read.

Book selection *General principles* Book selection is one of the most important techniques with which librarianship is concerned, for it is the bookstock which gives a library its character—more so than either staff or buildings. The term is generally understood to mean the selection of books for addition to stock, but frequently the practising librarian is required to choose books for other purposes such as select bibliographies, reading lists, displays, etc., and many of the principles to be outlined here are equally valid.

The principal factor in selection is the kind of library concerned. The stock of a university library, although general in scope must be related to the teaching departments or faculties, to provide books suitable for undergraduate study, as well as material for research at post-graduate level. In a special library the scope is usually more definitely limited by the aim and purpose of the organization or institution it serves. But problems arise over the extent to which books on allied subjects should be provided. Selection for public libraries must be related to such factors as the size of the system, the standard of education and interests of the population served, and the proportion of artisan, student and leisured classes comprising the library users. Changes in these factors must also be taken into account since provision of the most useful material will be affected by the trend towards a higher level of education generally, or the development of a residential area into an industrial one, etc.

The selection of books is also influenced by demand. It is clearly bad policy to provide books that no one is likely to need, just as it is to neglect subjects or specific books frequently required by library users. Potential demand is dependent on the type, purpose and scope of the library concerned, and is judged most effectively by constant study of the use made of the shelf stock. The librarian will be guided also by vocal demand made through

readers' advisers, and the request system. Volume of demand is more difficult to assess as it is stimulated very often by incidental factors such as book reviews in the popular press, or recommended reading for lecture courses. Books on some subjects are more in demand at one particular time of year than at another.

Not all subjects—or books—are of equal merit, and it is important to evaluate demand in order to avoid waste. Otherwise it can happen that far too much is spent on ephemeral works to the detriment of authoritative books for which there is little apparent demand. Every book's existence in the stock should be justified; 'standard works' are assured of this, provided they fall within the scope of the library, and they ought not to be rejected for purchase on the grounds of cost alone.

The ultimate aim of all book selection is to make the most effective use of the allotted book fund. The ideal of sufficient funds to buy every book felt to be justified is rarely encountered, and even with the application of the principles broadly outlined here, other limitations need to be imposed. In the case of public libraries with several service points, the extent to which particular titles are duplicated has a direct importance. A reasonable balance must be sought between additional copies and alternative titles. A policy is required on the purchase of new editions. If a new edition has but little revision, its purchase amounts to duplication. But others, particularly directories and annual publications which contain substantially new information, are only acceptable in the current edition. Purchase of these is a regular commitment and must be allowed for when the decision is made. Withdrawals policy also has its effect on the financial aspect of the subject. When the question arises whether books should be withdrawn or replaced, a re-evaluation is necessary to ensure that replacement is justified.

The individual book Many popular subjects are constantly being re-written in new books without fresh information being contributed, and there may be little significant difference between them. In cases of this kind there is greater freedom of choice. On the other hand the literature of some subjects or aspects of

subjects is small, restricting choice. Thus, to a great extent, selection is governed by what is available.

Assuming that an individual book is eligible for serious consideration, the following are a few of the points to be examined: (1) *Standard*. A balance in the stock between elementary and advanced, popular and specialist is necessary, in accordance with the type of demand to be met. (2) *Approach*. A similar balance is necessary between theoretical, practical or historical aspects of subjects if proper representation of each is required. The latest available information in book form on technical subjects frequently appears in American books, and variations between English and American practice and terminology should be taken into account. (3) *Date*. Information may be subject to change (e.g. law), shortening the effective life of the book. It may already be obsolescent, since some time elapses between acceptance of a MS. and publication. (4) *Scope*. Not all aspects of a subject may be covered or at sufficient length. (5) *Illustrations*. These are of little consequence in some books, but their quality is vital in others. (6) *Index*. It has been said that an unindexed book is not worth having. This extreme view is not practical, and although a good index is preferable, its absence should only be a deciding factor when a choice is possible. In any case it should not be assumed that all indexes are efficient. (7) *Format*. Shelving problems arise with very large or very small books. When pamphlets are issued on loan, the cost of some form of binding must be taken into account. Special treatment is usually necessary for publications in loose-leaf form or with 'spiral binding.' Although items of unsuitable format are to be regretted from a bibliographical point of view, libraries should be prepared to deal with them, especially as to-day many use non-book materials such as microfilm, illustrations, gramophone records, etc.

Book selection aids No attempt will be made here to list book selection aids, except as examples of various kinds of tools available. They fall roughly into two categories, (a) for newly published books, and (b) as guides to the literature of a subject.

Initial selection of current books may be

made from reviews in literary journals or specialist periodicals (e.g. *Times Literary Supplement*, *English Historical Review*). Some judgment is necessary in considering books from reviews. Few are written for the librarian, leaving many questions unanswered. A review may be an essay, not strictly a review of a particular book, or it may represent the views of a specialist guilty of bias. If it is thought necessary, more than one review can be sought, and *Book Review Digest* is useful in tracing them.

Selective lists of new books, with annotations appear in such periodicals as *British Book News*, *Subscription Books Bulletin*, and *Stechert-Hafner Book News*, while exhaustive lists without indication of contents are given in trade bibliographies and national bibliographies. Sufficient information to effect a decision may be obtained from prospectuses, or publishers' announcements. Reading lists issued from time to time by the Library Association, the National Book League and others, can be used as basic revision lists. More extensive revision will need the wider resources of subject bibliographies. Continuity in some subjects is maintained by annual bibliographies of the *Year's Work* type.

Methods Authority to purchase books varies considerably in different libraries. In some the library committee retains complete control over purchases and requires details of all books proposed for addition to be submitted to it for approval. It is more common however, for this function to be delegated to the librarian who may either have complete freedom or be required to report his purchases to the committee. Sometimes a compromise scheme operates where only expensive or controversial items are referred.

In large libraries which are divided into a number of departments or branches, selection can be more easily related to supply and demand by consultation between heads of departments. They are in closer contact with the shelf stock, the use made of it by readers and potential demand. A staff committee is more likely to offset the effects of personal bias or opinion, and can jointly bring a broader outlook to bear on the subject. Completely independent selection by branch librarians within a system can lead to wasteful

BOOKSELLERS' ASSOCIATION

duplication, and also to the rejection by each of books which ought to be in one branch at least. Similar faults will occur in a university which has a number of departmental or college libraries unless fairly close limits of responsibility are defined, with some arrangement for decisions on doubtful items.

Collaboration is also useful for another reason. Large libraries encounter the problem of tracing all the books and related material which they can usefully acquire. Much of it may be fugitive, or published abroad, and unless a large number of sources are checked there is the possibility that books which the library should have escape notice. Team work is important in this respect, and by co-ordinated effort a larger number of specialist reviews, accessions lists of other libraries, booksellers' lists, etc. can be checked regularly.

Bonny, H. V. *A manual of practical book selection for public libraries*. Grafton, 1939.

Drury, F. K. *Book selection*. A.L.A., 1930.

Haines, H. E. *Living with books*. 2nd ed., Columbia Univ. Pr., 1950.

McColvin, L. R. *Theory of book selection for public libraries*. Grafton, 1925.

Tauber, M. F. *Technical services in libraries*. Columbia Univ. Pr., 1954.

Wilson, L. R. ed. *The practice of book selection*. Chicago Univ. Pr., 1940.

O.W.K.

Booksellers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland

History and Foundation

The present Booksellers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland has a continuous history from 1895. More than one attempt was made by British booksellers during the 18th and 19th centuries to form an association to combat the evils of unrestricted price competition, but each failed due to outside pressure. By the last decade of the 19th century, however, even the most ardent advocates of Free Trade were forced to accept the necessity for regulation and discipline. In 1890 the London booksellers formed themselves into a Society and this was expanded five years later to become the Associated Booksellers of Great Britain and Ireland, a name retained until 1948 when the present style was adopted.

The Association was formed at a time when a few pioneer publishers were advocating the publication of books at net prices; its first task was to call upon publishers to extend this idea and so banish the evils of discount trading, which had led to much instability in the retail book trade. In the following year the Publishers' Association was formed, and by 1901 the members of the two associations had managed to bring about the Net Book Agreement, a covenant which has ever since been regarded as the trade's Magna Charta.

Present work

The Association is divided into 16 regional branches each of which is governed by its own committee and holds its own meetings. Each of these branches also sends a representative to sit on the National Council.

The Council delegates much detailed work to committees such as Finance, Sales Promotion and the Education Board. In order that the various sectional interests of booksellers be fully represented various groups of members are formed, such as Foreign Bookselling, Export, Library Supplies, etc., which can make detailed recommendations to the Council. Although naturally the Association is primarily concerned with representing the interests of booksellers, its representatives nevertheless take their places in the various joint committees and advisory committees applicable to the whole book trade. The Association has, for instance, representatives on the Joint Advisory Committee with the Publishers' Association, the National Book League and the British National Bibliography. It is also represented on those bodies which are concerned with the problems and interests of retail trading in general, such as the National Chamber of Trade and the Retail Distributive Trades Conference. It represents the employers' angle on the Retail Bookselling and Stationery Trades Wages Council.

Among the many services for the use of its own members are the Booksellers' Clearing House, which provides a monthly service in the payment of accounts mainly between booksellers and publishers; and the operation of the well-known scheme of Book Tokens, for which purpose it has floated a subsidiary company, Book Tokens Ltd.

Education

One of the activities of the Association of which it is most proud is its educational work. This is administered by the Education Board which has arranged for various courses of tuition and examinations to be held on those subjects which are most likely to assist the bookseller and his assistant. In these courses not only the commercial subjects of bookshop practice and management are included but also papers on English Literature and Bibliography. By October 1955, 209 students had been awarded the Association's Diploma.

In its efforts to encourage the educational work of the trade the Board also organizes an annual Summer School which is attended by assistants and young managers from all over the country to hear lectures given by various experts in their own particular field of the trade. The Association is also recognized as an Employment Bureau and regularly receives applications from both assistants and employees.

Conference

The Association holds a Conference once a year, a feature of which is the attendance, by invitation, of representatives of publishing firms; usually one day, or part of a day, is set aside for a joint session at which any major problem seriously affecting both the producing and distributing side of the book trade is discussed. Many of the valuable reforms in the British book trade during the last few years have arisen from a resolution at one of these joint sessions.

G.R.D.

Book sizes (in inches)

	Octavos	Quartos
Pott	$6\frac{1}{2} \times 4$	$8 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$
Foolscap	$6\frac{3}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{3}{4}$
Crown	$7\frac{1}{2} \times 5$	$10 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$
Demy	$8\frac{3}{4} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$	$11 \times 8\frac{3}{4}$
Post	8×5	10×8
Medium	$9\frac{1}{2} \times 6$	$12 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$
Royal	$10 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{2} \times 10$
Super Royal	$10\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{1}{2}$
Imperial	$11 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$	15×11

Book stacks See **SHELVING**.

Book support See **BOOK END**.

Book tray A shallow frame for carrying a number of books, having one side and two ends and provided with handles or slots in the sides for ease of handling.

Book trolley A set of shelves on wheels provided with two or three shelves, used for transporting books within the library. Special adaptations are available for use in hospital libraries.

Book trough A V-shaped wooden shelf or rack placed on library tables for the display of books in such a manner that the titles are clearly visible.

Bookworm 1. An insect which damages books by boring holes through the paper and by feeding on paste and glue, destroys the bindings. 2. A voracious reader.

Border A binding ornamentation that runs close to the edge of the sides and, respectively, the spine, of a volume. To be distinguished from frame.

Borrowers' register A record of those persons who have been issued with membership cards or tickets entitling them to borrow books from a library. In libraries using a book issue method which identifies readers by a number, alphabetical and numerical files are needed. If readers' numbers are not used in charging, a simple alphabetical file is found to be sufficient.

Borrowing powers See **PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW**.

Bound-withs A term used by cataloguers to denote works originally published independently but subsequently bound together. Such volumes may be catalogued in two ways:

1. Where the volume has a collective title-page the main entry may be constructed from this, as for a collection or a composite work, the contents being listed in a contents note, and analytical entries made for the individual items.
2. Where the volume has a separate title-page for each work, separate tables of contents and separate pagings, each work is given its own catalogue entry which includes a note stating the other works

BOURGEOIS

with which it is bound. There being only one volume, the call number for all such entries is identical.

Bourgeois A size of type equal to 9 pt.

Bowlerize To expurgate the text of a book by omitting or changing objectionable words or passages; from Thomas Bowdler who, in 1818, issued an expurgated edition of Shakespeare and later a Bowdlerized Gibbon's *Rome* (*A.L.A. Gloss., Book. Gloss.*).

Bowl The curved stroke of a letter surrounding a closed 'white' portion (counter).

Box 1. Printed matter centred in a column or double column. 2. A rectangle made up of rules surrounding type-matter.

Boxes Divisions of the type case in which individual characters are kept.

Boxhead 1. Heading for a column in a ruled table. 2. A cut-in head with a rule around it.

Bracket shelf A supplementary shelf or shelves hinged to the end of book cases in lending libraries for display purposes.

Bracket stack See *SHELVING*.

Brackets 1. Rectangular marks [] used in cataloguing to enclose information supplied by the cataloguer or to indicate unnumbered pages in a collation. Often called Square Brackets to distinguish from parentheses and angle brackets. 2. Angular marks < > used in cataloguing to enclose matter which itself appears in square brackets on the title-page. Often called Angle Brackets.

Bradford, Samuel Clement, 1878-1948, Librarian of the Science Library, South Kensington, 1925-38, was noted as the most spirited British advocate of the Universal Decimal Classification. Known also as the author of Bradford's law of scattering, concerning the distribution of peripheral journals around any subject (see his *Documentation*, 1948).

G.J.

Braille Finger reading for the sightless is an obvious expedient and the idea of embossed printing for blind readers is old. Most of the early notations used consisted of little more than embossed alphabets and of these only

'Moon' (i.e. an adapted alphabet devised by Dr. William Moon (1818-94) of Brighton) is still of more than specialist historical interest. Embossed alphabets, which were necessarily of considerably larger size than inkprint norms, had serious limitations and many experiments with arbitrary characters were made during the early part of the 19th century (e.g. the Lucas system, the notation of which is reminiscent of the outlines of Pitman's Shorthand). All alternatives have long since given place to the dot-system of Louis Braille (1809-52), blind son of a harness-maker of Coupvray, near Paris.

The Braille system of 1825 (published in 1829) was based on an earlier dot-system devised by Charles Barbier. Braille reduced Barbier's 12 dot notation to one of 6 and displaced the phonetic basis by an alphabetic. Using 4 embossed dots Braille devised 10 basic symbols which represented the letters A-J. Letters K-T were obtained by adding a uniform fifth dot to each of the original ten symbols: the addition of a uniform sixth dot completed the alphabet and made provision for accented letters. Since the dots forming the domino 6 have 64 permutations, an adequate number of combinations remained for signs of punctuation and for abbreviations.

Braille has all the simplicity of genius but it triumphed very slowly over its competitors (by as late as 1868 the English Bible was printed for the blind in at least five different systems) and even in France official recognition did not come until after the young inventor's death. The adoption of Braille in England was due largely to Dr. Thomas Rhodes Armitage (1824-90) and the British and Foreign Blind Association (established 1868), now the Royal National Institute for the Blind. Braille was applied in other countries on highly individual lines which caused endless confusions later (e.g. the applications to English in Britain and in America were widely different but Standard English (contracted) Braille was achieved in 1932 thanks largely to the work of the British Uniform Type Committee) but European uniformity in uncontracted Braille has been achieved. The application of Braille to non-European languages is relatively recent and owes much to Unesco and to its blind Braille consultant,

Sir Clutha Mackenzie, who is Chairman of the World Braille Council which has assumed documentary, advisory and co-ordinating responsibilities. Braille has long since been successfully adapted to musical, mathematical, chemical and stenographical notations.

A limited number of library readers who have become blind late in life and who lack the mental capacity or the application to learn Braille or who—perhaps as a result of a lifetime of manual labour—no longer possess an adequately fine sense of touch, may read Moon in preference to Braille. For the others, Braille has the overwhelming advantages, *inter alia*, of finesse, speed and scope. Braille is not only a means by which it has been possible to open up vast fields of otherwise inaccessible literature to blind readers through the building up of large library stocks. It can be written by blind people themselves: a proportion of the correspondence between the staff of the National Library for the Blind and its readers, for example, is carried on easily in Braille.

Ritchie, J. M. *Concerning the blind*. 1930.

Mackenzie, Sir Clutha. *World Braille usage*. 1954.

There is no satisfactory work on Louis Braille in English. Mr. Norman Wymer has a biography in preparation.

W. A. M.

Branch libraries Branch libraries are an integral part of a library system, and have an importance in efficiency and public regard quite outside their physical size.

To the area which a branch library serves, it not only represents, but is, the whole system. Because a branch library permits closer public relationship, demanding the utmost use of professional knowledge, it follows that not only must the service extended there be completely efficient, but that staff employed on such duties must be of the highest calibre. It is because of this essential fact of such close contact between the staff and the reader that the reputation of a public library system operating branch libraries finds its heights or depths, according to the standard of service maintained at its outposts.

As new towns develop, slum clearance proceeds and new housing estates are built and

occupied, branch library services to be provided therefore demand concentrated, well-informed and enlightened thought. For example, siting, exterior and interior features, bookstock, staff, hours open and extension services for any and every branch library must be considered, in order that such a centre shall become the communal heart of any outlying area.

In the past, branch libraries were established often as miniature central libraries, autonomous to a greater or lesser degree. In major towns and cities they were sited with oft-times little regard for the future mass-movement of population. Consequently, due to bombing in World War II slum clearance and the spread of commercialism, many of these large older branch libraries, since they would now serve but a fraction of the number of people for whom they were intended, have been liquidated or partly used as reserve book storage depots and home binderies.

1930-39 was the golden age of branch library development in this country. Due to the efforts of librarians like Gordon, Lamb, Ross, Nowell, Cashmore and Briscoe; the emancipation of public libraries through the lifting of the penny rate limitation; the growth of the county libraries system; the country-wide adoption of the open-access system and the efforts of the Library Association to establish professionally qualified library staffs, the public library movement began to expand out of all recognition.

In municipal library systems autonomy, then ruling in branch libraries, began to give way to co-ordination so that, in a particular system, uniformity of procedure and practice became the rule and not the exception. On the rapidly growing new housing estates, branch libraries were built, embodying in design and lay-out new features and principles, such as size being conditioned by population to be served; bookstocks being selected to suit the predominant reading tastes of the readers of a particular area; and the provision of books for young readers.

In county library systems, small permanent branch libraries began to take the place of book centres located in village schools and post offices; differential rating enabled medium sized towns to have a branch library of their

BRANCH LIBRARIES

own; and regionalization, as for example in Derbyshire, came into being, whereby a large county branch library became the administrative headquarters for all other small branch libraries in a large and well-defined area of a county, and full-time paid staff began to supersede the previous system of largely unpaid voluntary help.

With the advent of World War II, branch library development in the United Kingdom came to a standstill and remained so for some six years. The immediate post-war years was a time of make do and mend, but native ingenuity and adaptability saw branch library development awake and expand once more even if on less hitherto conventional lines.

Because of a total ban on the building of permanent structures for library purposes, it became necessary to use whatever laid to hand to provide branch service points where they were needed. As a result, shop premises were taken over as temporary branch libraries; odd premises such as barns, disused chapels and derelict buildings were converted into branch libraries; and travelling vans were fitted out as mobile libraries, capable of carrying some 2,500 books at a time, so that a library service could be provided for isolated knots of population or defined groups awaiting the lifting of the ban on the erection of a permanent branch library in their particular area. At the same time, in line with temporary pre-fabricated dwellings, there was born the pre-fabricated branch library, built to Ministry specifications where, though austerity was the order of the day, imaginative minds triumphed over manifold difficulties and limitations to such a degree that Lincoln's Bracebridge and Luton's Stopsley branch libraries are worthy examples of what can be achieved even on a shoe-string. Because of the very limitations imposed on branch library planners by post-war circumstances as well as by the very changed social conditions and habits, post-war branch library service points had to make the maximum use of the minimum interior space permitted. Consequently, the axe fell on the provision of newsrooms; solid partition walls taking up valuable space were eliminated; movable glass screens were utilized to divide where necessary; radial shelving disappeared in favour of wall shelving leaving the centre

clear for perambulation, space, island book-stacks and comfortable modern chairs. It is interesting to note that pre-fabricated branch libraries such as Bracebridge had the standard measurements of 54 ft x 18 ft 6 in., plus a brick annexe and a shelving capacity of 5,000 volumes.

Shop libraries, too, had their adherents since such premises could be quickly and cheaply adapted for the purpose of a lending library. Also, such places had the added advantages of being sited already in the shopping centre and the large window-space besides giving natural lighting, did away with the institutional atmosphere and cloistered seclusion hitherto found in public libraries. Such window-space enabled attractive displays to be arranged cheek by jowl with those of the chemist, confectioner, grocer or outfitter, thereby identifying the public library as intimately and as necessary as possible in the communal sense. The Archway branch library of Islington is a very good example of a shop library.

Eventually, the ban on permanent public libraries was lifted and the lessons learned in adversity and improvisation were able to be incorporated with advances made in architecture, heating, lighting, ventilation, interior decor and fittings. Whilst the canons of planning, such as the building looking like a library; being capable of use as a library, and toning with its surroundings, were adhered to, new permanent branch libraries showed the passage of the years since 1939. At Sheffield, the Manor Park branch library, whose shell had stood since 1940, was completed and incorporated the modular or unit system of construction. This system enables a building to be added to subsequently or altered architecturally, in the future, at a minimum cost. At Tottenham, Coombes Croft branch library was built with flats overhead. Internally, this library evidenced Scandinavian influences in decor, whilst the use of acoustic board for ceilings and gaily patterned rubber floors gave maximum quiet and restful atmosphere. All the charging and discharging of books is done outside the library proper which has a readers' desk to satisfy, professionally, readers needs. Heating is by continuous gas-fired boiler, so that all problems involving fuel

storage and boiler stoking are eliminated whilst the temperature inside the library is thermostatically controlled. No newsroom is provided, but the staff quarters are the envy of all who have seen them.

Many branch libraries have halls attached to them wherein meetings and social functions of every kind take place. Whilst library halls give added responsibilities to the branch library staff, for example, in safety precautions and rules and regulations for hall-hiring, such public amenities can and should be utilized as much as possible in conjunction with the public library to make that centre an efficient communal service point.

Branch librarianship calls for all the qualities of leadership expected of a chief librarian. Besides knowing his stock and the predominant reading tastes of his area, the branch librarian must ensure the continuance of enthusiasm and efficiency in his staff as well as in himself. Whilst expected to conform to uniformity of practice and procedure in administrative detail as laid down for his particular library system, the branch librarian, undoubtedly, will be called upon frequently to take decisions which can make or mar the reputation of the authority he serves.

Such work calls for the daily exercise of common sense, loyalty, ability to work unsupervised and a constant awareness of daily events affecting, in printed records, the public he strives to serve.

Brown, J. D. *Manual of library economy*. 6th ed., edited by W. C. Berwick Sayers. Grafton, 1949.

Enser, A. G. S. *Branch library practice*. Grafton, 1951.

Sharp, H. A. *Branch libraries*. Allen & Unwin, 1938.

A. G. S. E.

Brass rule A strip of brass and used to print or block lines, dots and varieties of borders.

Brayer Printer's hand-inking roller: originally a flat-ended pestle used to spread ink on the stone.

Brevier An old size in type about 8 pt.

British Council The British Council is a chartered grant-aided body. It was originally

founded in 1934 as a voluntary organization at the instance of the Foreign Office and certain other departments. It is provided for by a grant-in-aid on the Foreign Office vote, while since 1945 the sums to be spent in the Colonies have been voted under the Colonial Office grant, and since 1947-48 those to be spent in Commonwealth countries have been voted under a similar arrangement with the Commonwealth Relations Office.

Early in the history of the Council, the importance of books in furthering its aims was recognized by the Publishers' Association, which arranged for a special discount. The budget for books for libraries rose from £1,500 in 1937-38 to £78,000 in 1945-46, fell to £18,000 in 1951-52, and was restored, following the favourable report of the Drogheda Committee, to £46,000 in 1955-56.

The Council's library system, the most far-flung network of libraries in the world, contains over 700,000 volumes. Bookstock varies from country to country according to local needs. Those in foreign countries have certain common characteristics. The Council library in a foreign country is essentially a special library, not because it caters for foreign specialists, but because of its special purpose. High place is given to works on the English language and its teaching, and to English literature of all periods, including, above all, the most significant contemporary work in poetry, prose and drama, and both 'standard' and modern fiction. The library is normally strong in British civilization and institutions. In science, medicine and technology the tendency is to concentrate wholly on aspects in which the British contribution has special significance for the country concerned. In these, and indeed in all theoretical and technical subjects, the Council library admits works of British authorship only, whereas with works dealing fairly and usefully with any aspect of British civilization or literature, nationality of author and place of publication are immaterial. 'Political' books are admitted only where the library is shared with the Information Services.

Many of the reading rooms of Council libraries cater both for the reader who wishes to look at the latest newspapers and weekly and monthly magazines, and for the more serious

BRITISH COUNCIL

student, who can through specialist journals follow current British developments in his field.

In the Colonies the Council works on an agency basis for the Colonial Office, which up to 1948 encouraged it to initiate public library services. Since then, however, these responsibilities have been progressively transferred to local hands. The Gold Coast Library Board, the Jamaican Island Library Board and the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library were all based on Council-sponsored public library schemes. In most colonies, however, the Council now maintains only a small 'club' library in the Council Centre.

Among the bibliographical series issued by the British Council are *British book news*, a select, monthly, classified, annotated list, with special articles; the bio-bibliographical series *Writers and their work*; *British medical book list*, monthly annotated; *Educational book notes*, a mimeographed annotated quarterly list, distributed to educational institutes abroad; the mimeographed *Scibit* lists on scientific subjects.

Bibliographical enquiries come from all quarters into the Council's London headquarters, where they are dealt with as far as possible in small special libraries within the Council (e.g. music, medicine, science, fine arts, education), or referred to appropriate bodies. There is also in London a small general library which deals with enquiries not assignable to any specialist department, conducts bibliographical work, co-ordinates the Council's libraries in the United Kingdom, acts as a general reference and lending library for staff, visitors and students, and acts as the National Central Library's intermediary for loans to certain countries.

Annual Reports of the British Council (especially 1951-52).

Adam, Sir R. F. 'British books abroad.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1949, 51, 171-6.

Adam, Sir R. F. 'British Council libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 8-12 and subsequent correspondence.

Barnicot, J. D. A. 'The libraries of the British Council.' *J. Document.*, 1951, 7, 147-69.

Glaister, G. A. 'A British Council librarian abroad.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1952, 54, 329-32.

McColvin, L. R. *British books abroad*. Fortnightly, 1954, 175 (new series), 42-50.

Flood, R. A. *Public libraries in the colonies*. Library Association, 1950.

Clark, H. M. 'Work of the British Council Medical library.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 218-20.

J. D. A. B.

British Museum—classification The arrangement in this library is fixed location by press-mark and is not relative. Books are 'placed' rather than classed.

As in the Library of Congress, U.S.A., works have to be housed in several different places, forming different sequences and collections. Unlike Congress, the Museum does not attempt a co-ordinated scheme for the whole of its stock. We find a constant battle just to discover room for this enormous stock, increasing rapidly, shelved in a series of inadequate rooms and buildings.

Early attempts at systematic arrangement were made at the end of the 18th century by the Rev. S. Harper and the Rev. S. Ayscough, Thomas Watts, under Panizzi, reclassified the library in the middle of the 19th century and his scheme shows the influence of Brunet. It is as follows:

I Theology	VI History
II Jurisprudence	VII Geography
III Natural History and Medicine	VIII Biography
IV Archaeology & Arts	IX Belles Lettres
V Philosophy	X Philology

Watts's classification does not allow for insertion of new topics in its numerical divisions as do modern relative schemes. Detailed schedules are not published. They are in use in the General Library, e.g. the 'Iron Library.' Various collections and different materials are classed by their own schemes. The arrangement in the Reading Room does not follow the General Library sequence.

The British Museum's *General (Author) Catalogue* and alphabetical *Subject Index*, and other publications compensate greatly for this lack of system. The library is closed access and is used chiefly by scholars who know their subjects, so the loss is not so great as it might otherwise be.

Esdaile, A. *The British Museum library*. 1946.

Hill, F. J. *Shelving and classification of printed books in the British Museum 1753-1953*.

1953 (*Library Association Essay No. 254*.
Not publ., bibliog.).

The British National Bibliography This is the official catalogue of British publishing established in 1950. It is issued in weekly parts which are cumulated quarterly and annually. There is also a Cumulated Index covering the first five annual volumes. The weekly part of the Bibliography (B.N.B. as it is usually called) is both a subject list arranged by the Dewey Decimal Classification system and an alphabetical author/title list. In the last issue for each month the author/title list contains the entries for the whole month and, in addition, an alphabetical subject index.

The lists are compiled from books and pamphlets received under the provisions of the Copyright Act at the British Museum. As a result they are the fullest lists of British publishing available. Publishers send their new works to the British Museum some time before publication so that they are recorded promptly in the Weekly Lists.

The compilation of the bibliography is done by a team of bibliographers working in the British Museum and great effort is made to ensure accuracy. Every entry is a careful statement of a book's author, title, imprint, collation and subject with, wherever appropriate, a suitable reference to previous editions.

The Bibliography has a world-wide circulation among libraries of all kinds and important bookshops. In British libraries it serves three important functions. It is a medium for current book selection for which the full catalogue entry and detailed analysis of subject matter help the librarian in the task of evaluating the suitability of each item. The two sequences, the classified subject sequence and the alphabetical author/title sequence, provide a complete tool for the systematic selection of new works against existing classified stock records and the tracing of any known item. It is a tool for the cataloguer providing him with a definitive catalogue entry framed according to the Anglo-American Code and a Dewey Decimal Classification number with a useful guide to the selection of subject headings from any authority list. It is also, through its cumula-

tions and annual volumes, a complete guide to British publishing providing the reference librarian with a means of tracing books on any subject, of compiling book lists and of rapidly finding details of any work of which the author, title, editor, translator or series is known.

In addition the Bibliography plays an important part in inter-library co-operation, and it is the basis for subject specialization schemes in the Regional Library Systems.

A new service, providing catalogue entries on standard 7.5 cm × 12.5 cm cards, was inaugurated in 1956. The cards are printed on what is essentially an addressing machine by means of a silk screen fixed to a cardboard frame. The matter to be printed is photographed on to the silk screen from the printed entries in the weekly issues of the British National Bibliography. Libraries order cards by the B.N.B. number in any quantities. The printing machine was specially constructed by the Addressall Machine Co. and the silk screens are processed by the Gestetner Photo-scope process.

The British National Bibliography is quite unsubsidized and is controlled by a body of representatives of the principal organizations in this country concerned with books, publishing and libraries. The controlling body is the Council of the British National Bibliography Ltd., with headquarters at the British Museum. The Council was set up in 1949 and the first issue of the British National Bibliography appeared in January, 1950.

A.J. We.

The British National Book Centre All libraries have books and periodicals which become redundant as a result of stock revision, binding policies or unwanted donations. The fruitful disposal of these is a recurrent problem. Regional subject specialization and other arrangements (such as the Library Association Medical Exchange or lists privately circulated) help to direct this surplus to appropriate libraries, but the considerable residue includes out-of-print books and periodicals which have proved to be badly needed to fill gaps elsewhere.

Since 1937 (except for the war years) the National Central Library has acted as a central

THE BRITISH NATIONAL BOOK CENTRE

agency for the redistribution of such material, initially at the suggestion of the Library Association's University and Research Section and in a limited way. Ten years later, the Library's co-operation with Unesco in the winding-up of the Inter-Allied Book Centre (established 1944-47 in London to collect books and periodicals for donation to war-damaged libraries), and an increase in the Library's grant-in-aid from H.M. Treasury for the purpose, led to the creation of a new department especially for this work. In sympathy with Unesco's plan to encourage the setting up of similar national centres in other countries the new department was named the British National Book Centre.

Although its first task was to dispose of the stock left from the Inter-Allied Book Centre, it quickly assumed a wider role, and since 1949 has regularly received and circulated information about surplus material freely offered and wanted by British and Commonwealth libraries of all kinds. The basic procedure is as follows:

Cards for offered or wanted titles are lodged with the Centre which prepares them as copy for a book and a periodical list issued each month; in due course the Centre's staff allocates items requested to appropriate libraries by stamping their addresses on the cards concerned; these are returned to their original libraries which then send wanted material direct. The library receiving material refunds postage; its only other expense is an annual subscription for each type of list taken. No expense is incurred in donating books and periodicals, even special cards being supplied by the Centre, although the withdrawn catalogue cards may be used if desired. The whole process takes up to four months for British libraries and somewhat longer for those overseas.

Wanted titles notified in the lists are for items not easily obtainable through the book trade and not in common demand.

In the allocation of books and periodicals, what a library receives and what it gives are not necessarily balanced, but where several libraries request the same item the Centre takes into account, *inter alia*, the material previously offered and received by each library, its obligations under regional specialization

and other co-operative schemes and its special collections. If only one library asks for an appropriate item allocation is made to that library whatever its 'credit' status.

This arrangement benefits every sort of library: the new library with little to give needs material which the well-established library is trying to clear from its shelves, while the latter has a stronger claim on any valuable item it wants. Every size and kind of library may have something unwanted where it is, but needed somewhere else.

The Centre selects from what is offered so that common, out-of-date or insubstantial material does not appear in the lists. Items of narrow interest may be offered direct to appropriate libraries and everything, whether listed or not, is checked both against the Centre's standing 'wants' file and by the British Museum, which often receives titles not previously acquired.

Useful material not wanted by British and Commonwealth libraries may be of interest to foreign libraries, and the Centre implements as far as possible Unesco's policy of promoting international interchange of this kind.

Although the actual handling of books and periodicals is normally avoided, the Centre does accept selected works from individual donors. Suitable items from such sources are frequently offered on the lists and sent to needy libraries overseas.

In the year ending February, 1955, over 139,000 books and periodicals were redistributed with the help of 429 co-operating libraries.

Annual reports of the National Central Library. 1947 to date.

Allardyce, A. 'The British National Book Centre: the first five years.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 344-9.

Overton, C. D. 'The British National Book Centre and its service to special libraries.' *J. Document.*, 1952, 8, 157-63.

Allardyce, A. 'The role of the British National Book Centre (in the acquisition of second-hand periodicals).' *Aslib Proc.*, 1953, 5, 75-80.

A.A.

British Union Catalogue of Periodicals
The British union catalogue of periodicals owes

its inception to Mr. Theodore Besterman, who, in 1942, first put forward proposals for the compilation of a union catalogue of periodicals contained in some 500 British libraries. In 1944 the Rockefeller Foundation agreed to make a grant which would enable this scheme to be set in motion, and the work began under the editorship of Mr. Besterman. He was succeeded in 1947 by Dr. Alfred Loewenberg who held the post until his untimely death at the end of 1949. The present Editor, Mr. J. D. Stewart, was appointed early in 1950.

The work started with the compilation of a list of periodicals based upon titles in the *Union catalogue of periodical publications in the university libraries of the British Isles*, the second edition of the *World list* and the catalogue of the British Museum Library. At this stage it was intended that a check list should be printed and circulated to the co-operating libraries (a number of those originally approached were, for various reasons, unable to take part in the scheme), who would add their own holdings and return the list to the Editor. However, the rapidly increasing cost of printing proved prohibitive, and new methods had to be adopted.

Contributing libraries were asked to compile lists of their own holdings, details of which were incorporated into the files held in the B.U.C.O.P. office. This inevitably prolonged the work and delayed publication, but an unforeseen advantage was that numbers of rare or specialized periodicals were reported from unexpected sources: e.g. an extensive collection of Revolutionary and Napoleonic periodicals from one public library, and sets of little-known Hebraica from another.

Owing to the ever increasing size of the files, it was reluctantly decided that certain material would have to be abandoned. Many state papers, directories, administrative reports, etc., were withdrawn from the main files, but even so, the term 'Periodical' has been liberally interpreted, to include the serial publications of learned societies, newspapers issued before 1800, and state papers of a non-administrative nature.

The Catalogue does not claim to be a bibliography in the fullest sense of the word, but where possible full bibliographical details

have been provided. Entries are made under the earliest known title of a periodical or name of a society, with references from later variations. Publications of a society having non-distinctive titles, e.g. *Bulletin*, *Comptendu*, *Mitteilungen*, are entered under the name of the society.

In all, some 400 national, university, public and special libraries are listed in B.U.C.O.P. Under prevailing conditions, it would obviously be impossible to list every periodical held by these libraries, but an attempt has been made to ensure regional representation of the commoner periodicals, and to report even odd numbers of the rarer ones, and it is hoped that, in spite of inevitable short-comings, B.U.C.O.P. will prove a useful bibliographical tool.

Besterman, T. 'On a proposed union catalogue of periodicals in British libraries.' *Aslib report of proceedings of the 17th Conference*, 1942.

Besterman, T. 'B.U.C.O.P. rules and definitions.' *J. Document.*, 1946, 2, 92-98.

Grenfell, D. *Periodical and serials*. pp. 85-86, 106, 120, 142-3.

Stewart, J. D. 'The British union catalogue of periodicals.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 248-50.

M.E.H.

Broad classification See CLASSIFICATION, BROAD.

Broad side A single sheet printed on one side (or less frequently on a few conjoining sheets), usually intended to be posted, publicly distributed or sold, e.g. proclamations, handbills, ballad sheets, etc. Usually, though not necessarily, of quarto size or larger. Not synonymous with broadsheet, which by several authorities is used to designate a single sheet publication with each side printed as a single page.

Brochure A short printed work, consisting of only a few leaves, merely stitched together with thread or cord and not otherwise bound. Literally, a stitched work (French *brocher*, to stitch). (*A.L.A. Gloss.*)

Broken order The removal of part of a book-stock from its normal place in the main classification.

BROWN, JAMES DUFF

Well-known examples are the removal of fiction and of quick reference books (see also PARALLEL CLASSIFICATION).

Brown, James Duff, 1862-1914 Librarian of Clerkenwell from 1888 to 1905, where he gained professional fame by his introduction of 'open access' in the lending library in May, 1894, and where his *Quarterly Guide* issued from July, 1894, is said to have been the first annotated library bulletin in the country; and of Islington from 1905 to his death, where, in one of the few Metropolitan Borough library systems conceived as a whole, he planned a competent central library building without the then customary newsroom. Contributed to Macalister's planned collaborative manual of organization, the Library Association Series; founded the *Library World* in 1898; prepared the first comprehensive *Manual of library economy* in 1903; and compiled the Subject Classification, published in 1906. He touched no professional topic to which he did not make some useful contribution, and there were few subjects on which he did not write. He found a profession so ignorant technically that, as Just recorded in his obituary, at a meeting in 1896 'no discussion on the Decimal Classification was possible . . . owing to the simple fact that hardly anyone in the audience knew more about it than its name,' and he left it, if anything, over absorbed in technique. (Lengthy obituaries in the *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1914.) See also SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION.

G.J.

Brown (or Browne) charging system
See POCKET-CARD CHARGING.

Brunet, Jacques-Charles (1780-1867) modified and extended greatly the method of classification of books used by the Paris booksellers. The results of his scholarship may be seen in his *Manuel du libraire et de l'amateur de livres*, Vol. 5, where his system is worked out in detail.

This classification greatly influenced many Continental European schemes such as that of the French Bibliothèque Nationale, and also that of the British Museum.

There are five main classes:

- I. Theology.
- II. Jurisprudence.

III. History.

IV. Philosophy.

V. Literature.

which may each be divided in considerable detail.

The notation can vary according to the user. (Brunet does not use one for main classes.) That of the Bibliothèque Nationale is very mixed and Sayers quotes the notation for a Turkish version of the Bible as possibly A1rAm82.

There is no index.

Sayers, W. C. B. *Manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955.

Bucket Part of a book conveyor in which books or conveyor trays are placed for transport along the endless chain. It is so constructed that a vertical position is maintained.

Buckram A filled book cloth with a heavy woven base.

Buildings See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Bulk The thickness of a book.

Bulmer, William (1758-1830) Perhaps the most distinguished English printer and book-maker between Baskerville and Whittingham. His publications from the Shakespeare Press were notable for the high standard of press work, and as such received somewhat fulsome praise in T. F. Dibdin's *Bibliographical Decameron*.

Burin Engraver's cutting tool.

Burnished edges Coloured or gilded edges that have been polished, usually with a bloodstone or an agate.

Butted Slugs—lines of type or rules set end to end to make one line.

Byelaws and regulations *Byelaws* A public library authority may make byelaws for all or any of the following purposes relating to any library, museum or art gallery under its control—for regulating the use of the same and of the contents thereof and for protection against injury, destruction and misuse; for requiring from users a guarantee or security against loss and injury; and for removal therefrom of persons committing an offence against the Libraries Offences Act, 1898, or against the byelaws.

Byelaws are made subject and according to the provisions respecting byelaws contained in the Public Health Act, 1875 (ss. 183 and 184, as amended), the Local Government Act, 1933 (ss. 249-52) and the London Government Act, 1939 (ss. 146-49). Offences and penalties under byelaws may be prosecuted and recovered in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction. Reasonable penalties may be imposed not exceeding £5 for each offence and, in the case of a continuing offence, a further penalty not exceeding 40s. for each day after written notice of the offence from the local authority. Library byelaws must be submitted to the Minister of Education for confirmation. Briefly, provisions in the various Acts relating to byelaws lay down that notice to apply for confirmation must be given, proposed byelaws must be open for inspection at the offices of the local authority without charge, confirmed byelaws must be printed and deposited at the offices of the local authority and be open for inspection without charge and that copies or extracts must be provided on request for which a charge may be made. A model set of library byelaws has been drawn up and issued by the Ministry of Education, a copy of which has been reprinted in Hewitt's *Law relating to public libraries*, 2nd ed., 1947.

Regulations A library authority may make regulations for the safety and use of every library, museum and art gallery under its control and for the admission of the public thereto.

Regulations do not require confirmation by higher authority as do byelaws. They may not be enforced by 'fine.' As to the imposition of so-called 'fines' for the non-return of books within a stated period see FINES.

The Library Association has prepared and issued a model set of Library Regulations—*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 256. It should be noted, however, that this set includes the 'fine' clause for which there is no statutory authority. Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*, 2nd ed., 1947.

Hewitt, A. R. *Summary of public library law*, 3rd ed. (rev.), 1955.

'Library Fines.' *Justice of the Peace (Journal)*, 1953, 117, 785.

Local Government Law and Administration in England and Wales, 14 vols., 1934-41, and annual continuations to date (Title: *Byelaws*).

'Penalties in public libraries.' *Justice of the Peace (Journal)*, 1953, 117, 653.

Schofield, A. N. *Byelaws of local authorities*, 1939.

A. R. H.

C

Cadastral map A large-scale map or survey showing ownership and value of land, for use in apportioning taxes (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Calendar 1. A chronological list of documents, with annotations indicating or summarizing the contents of each. 2. A schedule of events or discussions in the order in which they are to take place, as of cases in court or of bills in a legislative body (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Calender A system of alternate rollers of metal and paper placed at the dry end of the paper machine for imparting a polish to the finished paper, or, if the paper has been coated, the calender rolls polish the china clay surface.

Calendered paper Paper which has been passed through heated polished rollers under pressure in order to form a hard smooth surface. Super calendered implies a high polish and extra calender rollers.

Calf A smooth leather made from calfskin.

Call number The symbols used to indicate the location of a book on the shelves. The class number often precedes an author number which individualizes the book.

Calligraphy The art of fine handwriting; of especial interest to bookmen as forming the basis of all varieties of type.

Cancel A printed correction slip inserted in a book to replace errors detected after proof reading or to replace matter offensive to a censorship. A cancel may range in size from a portion of a line to a complete leaf. In early printed books minor corrections were frequently made by hand. The substituted portion is usually named Cancellans and the original the Cancellandum.

Any part of a book (a leaf or leaves, or part of a leaf) intended to be substituted for the corresponding part of a book as originally printed. A cancel for part only of a leaf now usually takes the form of a correction slip to be pasted on the original leaf, which is not

removed. The term cancel applies only to the new part, and not to the part which it is intended to replace.

Canon An old name for a type size of about 48 pt.

Cap lines Letters are formed on three imaginary framework lines, the base line, cap line and mean line. The cap line is the uppermost.

Capitals Abbreviated to 'caps' and indicated in MS. by three lines under the words to be thus set.

Capsa A cylindrical box used in Roman libraries to hold one or more rolls standing upright (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Caption Text descriptive of an illustration: also the heading of a chapter or page.

Caption title The title printed at the beginning of a chapter or at the head of a page or section of a book.

Carbon paper An inked paper used for reproducing extra copies of a document simultaneously with the writing or typing of the document. The best modern carbon papers are made of tissue papers of various weights and qualities coated with synthetic dyes or carbon pigment, waxes and refined oils. The best tissues, made from rag pulp, are less likely to tear than those made from wood pulp. Four kinds are manufactured, for use with typewriter, pen, pencil and hectograph (spirit) duplicator.

Card A rectangular piece of cardboard having a surface suitable for writing, typing, etc., used in making library record intended for vertical filing.

Card cabinet A case of drawers or trays in which cards are filed vertically. The front of each drawer or tray is usually fitted with a slotted frame for the insertion of a label

indicating the contents. Certain card cabinets are so constructed that the drawers or trays slope downwards towards the back of the cabinet, ensuring easier consultation of the cards.

Card catalogue A catalogue on cards of a uniform size, each card bearing a single entry or reference, filed vertically in special drawers housed in a cabinet. Early forms of card catalogue consisted of handwritten slips filed in shallow trays, and so far as is known, the earliest use of such was made by the Abbé Rosier who in 1775 described the method in his preface to the general index of the publications of the Paris Academy of Science.

Unlike catalogues in book form, the card catalogue has the supreme virtue of allowing the withdrawal of out-of-date entries and the insertion of new ones easily, without disturbing its structure or sequence. Thus it may be kept current at all times. In addition, physical deterioration is slower than any other physical form of catalogue, due to the protection afforded the cards by the surrounding cabinet, and the fact that normally only the edges of the cards are touched during use.

Unless the user is familiar with this form, however, and unless the catalogue is well guided, its arrangement may appear complex. It suffers, too, from the fact that, of the cards in a single drawer, only one at a time can be consulted. Possibly the most serious disadvantage lies in the present methods of cabinet construction and drawer disposition, in that a single person in consulting the contents of a single drawer may obstruct the use of many other drawers full of cards.

Nevertheless, the singular advantages of the card catalogue, invented by librarians and now the basic indexing and filing method of the commercial world, have undoubtedly commended themselves to librarians during the 20th century. The greatly increased rate of book production, the rapid superseding of texts by new editions and new titles containing later information, and the increased use made of library books by readers, leading to their physical wear and withdrawal, have all tended to confirm the value of this flexible form of catalogue which is now used by the majority of libraries.

Card index An index made on cards usually of standard size (5 × 3 in.) and kept on their edges in a drawer.

Card number (Catalogue cards). A number, or a combination of a letter, letters or a date and a number, that identifies a particular card in a stock of printed catalogue cards, such as Library of Congress cards (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Card tray A drawer for holding cards, housed in a card cabinet. Most modern card trays have low or cut-away sides for ease of handling the cards, and are fitted with an angle-block capable of being adjusted to any position along the length of the tray to keep the cards upright. Also known as a card drawer, and in the case of a card catalogue, catalogue drawer and catalogue tray.

Caret (∧) in proof reading to show where fresh matter is to be inserted.

Carolingian Relating to a variety of handwriting developed from the writing schools refounded under the influence of Charlemagne, which employed capitals, uncials, half-uncials and minuscules. Especially associated with Alcuin and his work in propagating learning, the Carolingian minuscule is the source of most modern forms of European lettering.

Carrel A small room or alcove for individual study in a library or in the stack, formed by partitions or arrangement of shelving in which typing may be permitted. Also called cubicle or stall.

Cartographer entry An entry for maps in a catalogue under the name of the map-maker as heading.

The cartographer entry may be a main or added entry, dependent upon the type of catalogue and the dominant interest of the library. Modern maps will rarely merit cartographer main entry since their chief interest usually lies either in the area delineated or their subject, whilst the cartographer's name does not as a rule appear on the map.

Cartouche A scroll-shaped or other ornamental design, with a space containing an inscription, as on an old map (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

CARTRIDGE PAPER

Cartridge paper A hard, tough class of paper made with a rough surface in many grades for drawing and industrial purposes. Available in many finishes and colours. Drawing cartridge is usually a white tub-sized rag paper, whereas industrial cartridge is made from esparto or wood pulp.

Case 1. In hand composition, a shallow wooden tray to hold type, divided into compartments of varying size according to the frequency of use of each letter, and positioned accordingly. The arrangement is standard for all types and sizes. Cases are usually in pairs, the upper case, which rests at an angle to the lower case containing mostly capitals, the lower case which lies flat containing the ordinary letters. 2. In binding, a case is the made-up cover, ready for affixing to the book.

Case binding A method of binding in which the book cover is made wholly separate from the book and later attached to it; distinguished from those methods in which the cover cannot be constructed as a separate unit. Sometimes called casework (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Caslon, William (1692-1766) English type designer and founder. Designed and cast the type which bears his name, one of the most widely used of all type designs in English and American printing. He began type-founding in 1720, but his first Roman is not found before 1725. His designs are fundamentally those of the late 17th century Dutch founders, and are therefore classed as 'old face.' The specimen book of 1734 is a landmark in type history, and displays the type ornaments which were so widely used in contemporary book production. The firm he founded is still in existence.

Cast-off To estimate the amount of printed matter that will result from a given manuscript copy.

Cast-up To calculate the cost of composition.

Catalogue A list of books; as distinguished from a bibliography, it is confined to the contents of a particular library or collection. Arranged in a recognized order, the entries which it contains are formulated in accordance with specified rules, providing bibliographic

information and often further elucidations and appraisals.

The purpose of a catalogue is to act as a key to the library's stock, enabling an enquirer to find a particular book of which some or all of the details are known, to survey the entire bookstock or sections of it, or to select the books which will best serve his purpose.

Since a book may be sought in the catalogue by author, title, subject, series, literary or physical form, or by some other factor, various kinds of entries may be included to facilitate the tracing of a particular work by any one of these searching factors. The basic kinds of entry are author entry, title entry, series entry, subject entry, form entry and analytical entry (*q.v.*). The dictionary catalogue is the only type of catalogue which includes all these kinds of entry in one sequence. Other types having different virtues or serving more limited purposes are the classified, alphabeticoclassed, alphabetical subject, author and name catalogues (*q.v.*). References may also be included in the catalogue to increase its usefulness by directing the attention to the correct forms of headings chosen for entries or to additional entries likely to be of interest to the enquirer.

Until the mid-19th century catalogues were handwritten or printed in book or guard-book form. With the advent of sheaf and card catalogues the twin virtues of hospitality and flexibility were introduced, each of these forms allowing entries to be inserted into their correct places, or withdrawn, with the utmost ease and enabling catalogues to be kept up-to-date despite changing bookstocks. Although other physical forms of catalogue have been introduced since, the card and sheaf forms have gained such popularity during the present century that they are used by the great majority of libraries in all parts of the world.

Catalogue card A plain or ruled card, usually of standard size 5 × 3 in. (7.5 cm × 12.5 cm in Continental countries), used for making a single entry in a card catalogue.

Catalogue card copy See *PROCESS SLIP*.

Catalogue code A set of rules for the guidance of cataloguers in establishing headings

and preparing entries for a catalogue, sometimes including directions as to the filing and arrangement of these entries. Although libraries since the times of classical Greece and Rome have caused catalogues to be made, such compilations were more akin to finding-lists, having little affinity with present-day catalogues and rarely being compiled according to a logical plan. Such 'codes' as were in existence prior to the 19th century were mainly directed to explaining the use of the catalogue to the layman rather than providing rules to be followed by the cataloguer.

Sets of rules prescribing how the books of a library should be systematically catalogued are a comparatively recent development, the most important early code being the British Museum code of 91 rules adopted by the Trustees in 1839. This code, drafted largely by Sir Anthony Panizzi and John Winter Jones, specified the kinds of entry to be adopted and gave directions as to the choice and rendering of headings in respect of particular classes of works and authorship circumstances. The soundness of this code with its principle of author main entry plus added entries and references based on the content and needs of individual books, together with its practical rulings as to choice of headings, have led to its use as the basis of every major author catalogue code since published.

The more important of the catalogue codes published since that date are listed below:

- 1852 Jewett, C. C. *On the construction of catalogues of libraries* . . . (The first major code containing directions for subject entries, advocating the use of unit entry.)
- 1876 Cutter, C. A. *Rules for a printed dictionary catalogue*. (The first complete code of rules for a dictionary catalogue, revised 1889, 1891 and 1904, and still the basic standard code.)
- 1878 Cambridge University. *Rules to be observed in forming the alphabetical catalogue of printed books*. (Revised and expanded edition 1927.)
- 1883 Library Association. *Cataloguing rules*.
- 1883 American Library Association. *Condensed rules for an author and title catalog*.
- 1886 Dziatzko, K. *Instruction für die Ordnung der Titel im alphabetischen Zettelkatalog der*

Königlichen und Universitäts-Bibliothek zu Breslau.

- 1889 Delisle, L. *Instructions élémentaires et techniques pour la mise et le maintien en ordre des livres d'une bibliothèque*.
- 1890 Linderfelt, K. A. *Electric card catalogue rules: author and title entries*. (Based on Dziatzko and comparing the rulings of ten codes.)
- 1899 Prussia. *Instruktionen für die alphabetischen Kataloge der preussischen Bibliotheken* . . .
- 1905 Library of Congress. *Supplementary rules on cataloguing*.
- 1908 Library Association and American Library Association. *Cataloguing rules: author and title entries*. (The first international catalogue code.)
- 1912 Association des bibliothécaires français. *Règles et usages observés dans les principales bibliothèques de Paris* . . .
- 1923 Bodleian Library. *Rules for the author catalogue of books published in or after 1920*.
- 1923 Bibliothèque Nationale. *Usages suivis dans la rédaction du catalogue générale des livres imprimés* . . .
- 1929 Association des bibliothécaires français. *Règles générales*.
- 1931 Vatican Library. *Norme per il catalogo degli stampati*. 2nd ed., published 1939. (A complete code for a dictionary catalogue, 'for many years the most complete statement of American cataloguing practice' but available only in Italian until translated in 1948.)
- 1934 Ranganathan, S. R. *Classified catalogue code*. 2nd ed., 1945.
- 1936 British Museum. *Rules for compiling the catalogues of printed books, maps and music* . . . Revised ed.
- 1945 Ranganathan, S. R. *Dictionary catalogue code*.
- 1949 American Library Association. *A.L.A. cataloguing rules for author and title entries*. 2nd ed. (A thorough revision of the joint code of 1908.)

Catalogue raisonné A catalogue arranged in a systematic order of subjects, including critical, bibliographical and explanatory information.

Catalogue slip See PROCESS SLIP.

CATALOGUER

Cataloguer A librarian who determines the forms of entry and prepares the bibliographical descriptions for a catalogue, and, in many libraries, classifies the books and assigns subject headings (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Cataloguer's slip See PROCESS SLIP.

Cataloguing The process of compiling a catalogue, or constructing entries for insertion into a catalogue. In a broad sense, all the processes connected with the preparation and maintaining of a catalogue, including classification and the assignment of subject headings. In a narrower sense, the determining of the kinds of entry, the headings, bibliographical descriptions, and references required for the adequate recording of books and other materials in a catalogue.

Cataloguing department 1. The administrative unit of a library in charge of preparing the catalogue, and, in many libraries, of classifying the books. 2. The library quarters where the cataloguing processes are carried on (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Cataloguing process slip See PROCESS SLIP.

Catch letters A group of letters at the top of a page indicating the first or last word of a page or column in a reference book such as a dictionary.

Catchline A temporary descriptive headline on galley proofs. Also a short line of type in between two large displayed lines.

Catch stitch In bookbinding any kind of lock stitch or kettle stitch.

Catch word 1. The word (or part of a word) given at the foot of a page or at the foot of the last verso of a gathering, below the end of the last line, anticipating the first word of the page or leaf following. Rarely found in modern books. 2. A word placed at the top of the page or column, repeating the first or the last heading of the page or the column, as in a dictionary. Also called guide word, and direction word. 3. A significant word used in an index or catalogue on the first word of an entry.

Catchline A temporary descriptive headline on galley proofs. Also a short line of type in between two large displayed lines.

Catchword entry An entry for a book in a catalogue, list or index under a secondary part of its title. Used most frequently where the latter part of the title consists of a significant word or phrase for which an enquirer might look.

E.g.

Stone of destiny, An account of the significance of the.

Catchword title A partial title consisting of some striking word or phrase likely to be remembered by an enquirer.

'Categorical tables' See SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION.

Caxton, William (1412?-91) A cultured merchant who in middle life learned the art of printing at Cologne and first introduced it into England, setting up a press at the Sign of the Red Pale in Westminster (1476). Noted for printing English literary works, e.g. Chaucer and Malory rather than theological and classical texts. Caxton's productions are relatively crude, but show a progressive improvement in the introduction of head-lines, signatures, line justification, and in 1481, woodcut illustrations. About 100 works were issued, and eight varieties of type, all of gothic family, used. At Caxton's death, the press was continued by his assistant, Wynkyn de Worde.

Central catalogue 1. The catalogue of the central library of a library system. Also called main or general catalogue. 2. A catalogue in a central library of all the collections of a library system (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Central registration The practice of maintaining one borrowers' register in a library system and including in it all readers, regardless of the service point at which they apply for library membership.

Central shelf list 1. A shelf list recording the bookstock of the main library in a library system. Sometimes called main shelf list. 2. A combined shelf list for all books in a library system, housed in the main library. Also called union shelf list.

Centralized cataloguing The cataloguing by one library or cataloguing office within a

system of libraries of all books acquired by all those libraries so that the results of such cataloguing are used by the individual libraries. Centralized cataloguing may be carried out at local level (i.e. within a single library system) or at national level. Within a library system its introduction often coincides with the setting-up of a cataloguing department and an acquisitions department which together receive and catalogue all books destined for each single library. At national level the most common form of centralized cataloguing is that of a commercial or state organization which, having access to all or the majority of books published, performs the cataloguing and makes the results available in the form of printed catalogue cards to libraries requiring them.

Its prime advantage is that of economy, for duplication of work is avoided at all points where simultaneous cataloguing of the same titles would otherwise be carried out. Consistency of cataloguing is assured since entries, headings and references are uniform wherever used. Further, the economies invariably allow the employment of fully trained cataloguing personnel, with consequent raising of the standard of catalogue work, whilst the elimination of necessity for cataloguers' reference tools at each library enables the assembly of a comprehensive collection for the use of the trained personnel. It is manifest that the number of volumes processed by such a centralized office will usually justify the introduction of unit entries and mechanical methods of reproducing entries, such practices conferring further economies of their own.

Within most library systems of more than three or four service points centralized cataloguing is now the rule. Many countries have also introduced national centralized cataloguing agencies and among the most eminent of these may be mentioned the Library of Congress (for U.S.A.), the State Lenin Library (for Russia), the Central Book Chamber (for U.S.S.R.), the Swedish State Library Commission, the Folkeboksamlingenes Ekspedisjon (for Norway), and as commercial ventures the H. W. Wilson printed catalogue card service, that of Messrs. Harrods from 1949-52, the Deutsche Bücherei's publication of the *Deutsche Nationalbibli-*

graphie in Germany, and since 1950 the advent of the *British National Bibliography*.

Centre spread A design occupying the complete centre double page opening of a pamphlet, folder, periodical.

Centred dot A period placed higher than the base of the type face. Used to separate syllables, to show multiplication ($2 \cdot 2 = 4$), to separate roman capitals in classic form of tablet inscriptions (M·A·R·C·U·S). Also called space dot.

Chain and array See CLASSIFICATION.

Chain indexing A semi-mechanical method of producing the requisite subject index entries for a classified catalogue, based on analysis of the classification symbol of each subject. The method was originated by S. R. Ranganathan, being first published in his *Theory of library catalogue* and subsequently modified in the second (1945) and third (1951) editions of his *Classified catalogue code*. Although originally intended for use with the Colon Classification the procedure may be applied with ease to any classification scheme whose notation symbols indicate the subordination at each step of division, and its adaptation for use with the Dewey Decimal Classification has been demonstrated successfully by the *British National Bibliography* since 1951.

The classification symbol for every specific subject represented by an entry in the classified catalogue is analysed as a series of classes subordinated successively from the main class to the specific subject, e.g.

Outline of Sanskrit drama—Colon class number O15:2

- O Literature
- O1 Indo-European
- O15 Sanskrit
- O15:2 Drama

Each member of the 'chain' of classes thus produced provides an index entry, qualified if necessary by one or more of the superordinate terms to reveal the context (i.e. indicate the precise aspect dealt with).

E.g.

- | | |
|----------------------|-------|
| Drama: Sanskrit | O15:2 |
| Sanskrit: Literature | O15 |

CHAIN INDEXING

Indo-European Literature O1
Literature O

Where the terms used in the classification are those which will most likely be sought by the class of reader consulting the catalogue they are used directly as indexing terms. It may however be found, as frequently occurs with the Dewey terminology, that these are unfamiliar American words, or archaic, or insufficiently precise. In such cases they are replaced by more suitable synonyms. As in traditional indexing, all normal synonyms are indexed direct to the class number concerned.

Two basic modifications enabling the method to be used with other classification schemes than the Colon are, first, that intermediate steps in the 'chain' represented by terms unlikely to be consulted are omitted entirely; second, that steps produced by faulty subordination in the classification scheme are likewise omitted. These steps of the 'chain' are called respectively 'unsought links' and 'false links,' and are illustrated in the following examples of indexing with the Dewey classification:

1. *The radio reference handbook.* 621.384

Chain 600 Useful Arts
620 Engineering
621 Mechanical Engineering
621.3 Electrical Engineering
621.38 Weak Current Electrical Engineering

621.384 Radio
Index Radio: Engineering 621.384
Wireless: Engineering 621.384
Weak Current Electrical Engineering [Unsought link]
Electrical Engineering 621.3
Mechanical Engineering [False link]
Engineering 620
Useful Arts 600
Technology 600

2. *A new study of the Gospels.* 226

Chain 200 Religion
220 to 280 Christian Religion
220 Bible
225 to 228 New Testament
226 Gospels

Index Gospels: New Testament 226
New Testament 225/228
Bible 220

Christianity 220/280
Religion 200

3. *Marvels of insect life.* 595.7

Chain 500 Natural Science
590 Zoology
592 to 595 Invertebrates
595 Articulates
595.7 Insects

Index Insects: Zoology 595.7
Entomology 595.7
Articulates: Zoology 595
Invertebrates: Zoology 592/595
Zoology 590
Natural Science 500
Science 500

It is evident that chain indexing requires each intermediate step to be indexed even though the library may not possess individual books on those superordinate subjects. Far from being misleading, it is claimed that the value of the index is increased since it is the tendency of many enquirers to begin searching for a specific subject by a more general term and, having been directed by such a superordinate entry to the correct region of the catalogue, will be led by efficient catalogue guiding through its systematic order to the specific subject.

The method secures economies through the virtual elimination of inverted terms, e.g. English literature is indexed directly to 820 (Dewey) but Literature, English is omitted, the superordinate entry Literature 800 directing attention to the correct region of the catalogue. Its systematic discipline also ensures consistency of rendering, and automatically assembles in the index all those aspects of a topic which are separated in the classification, e.g.

Radio: Biographies 927.914
Radio: Engineering 621.384
Radio: Public Entertainment 791.4

Chain procedure may be used with advantage to provide specific subject headings for the dictionary catalogue, the superordinate steps of the 'chain' indicating necessary *see also* references in Hierarchy.

Ranganathan, S. R. *Classified catalogue code*. 3rd ed., 1951. Section 31, 174-209.

Ranganathan, S. R. *Library catalogue: fundamentals and procedures*. 1950. Part 3, 75-151.

Ranganathan, S. R. *Theory of library catalogue*. 1938. Chapter 11.

Ranganathan, S. R. 'Chain procedure and dictionary catalogue.' *Ann. Libr. Sci.*, 1954, No. 1, 216-21.

Mills, J. 'Chain indexing and the classified catalogue.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 141-8.

Doughty, D. W. 'Chain procedure subject indexing and featuring in the classified catalogue.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 173-8.

Palmer, B. L., and Wells, A. J. *The fundamentals of library classification*. 1951. Chapter XI.

E.L.J.S.

Chain lines A series of parallel lines usually about an inch apart, seen in handmade or laid paper, produced by the wires on which are laid the finer straining wires of the mould. Chain lines are parallel to the narrow side of the sheet and in conjunction with the watermark (q.v.) are used in determining the number of times a sheet has been folded in a book, and hence whether folio, octavo or other format. Owing to the varying size of the sheet these bibliographical terms are not related to physical measurements.

Chain mark See LAID PAPER.

Chain stitch See KETTLE STITCH.

Chalcography Engraving on copper or brass.

Chalk engraving See CRAYON ENGRAVING.

Changed names A term used by cataloguers to denote authors who have written under different names. These may comprise legal changes of name (including elevation to the peerage, marriage of women, etc.) or the personal assumption of another name (e.g. a pseudonym, professional or religious name).

Books by such authors pose a problem to the cataloguer in deciding which name to use as heading for all the works of one author since it is desirable that those entries should appear together in the author catalogue. The choice lies between the following:

- (a) The legal name.
- (b) That first used as an author.
- (c) The one most frequently used by the author on the title-pages of his books.
- (d) That which is preferred by the author or the custom of his country.

(e) The name likely to be most widely known by the library's public.

The chief catalogue codes differ in their rulings as to the name authorized for main entry heading, but if a general comparison is attempted it may be said that British libraries prefer entry under the legal family name or the name first used as an author, whilst in the United States the best-known name is preferred.

Changed titles Used by cataloguers to describe books which have been published or translated under more than one title, including:

- (a) Reprints published under a new title.
- (b) Revised editions with a change of title.
- (c) Books revised or rewritten by the original author under a different title.
- (d) Abridgments and epitomes whose titles differ from that of the work abridged.
- (e) Different translations of the same work under different titles.

It being thought desirable that the catalogue should show together entries for all parts and forms of the same work, these are usually entered under the heading and title of the earliest form of the work, save where the latest publication has become substantially a new work.

Chap book From the Anglo-Saxon root *ceap* trade. 1. A small, cheap paperbound book containing usually some popular tale, legend, poem or ballad, sold by hawkers or 'chapmen' in the 17th and 18th centuries. 2. A modern pamphlet suggestive of this type of publication (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Chapel Associations of journeymen in the binding and printing trades, or the meeting of such an association. The secretary of the chapel is appointed by the members to collect and pay in trade union dues.

Characteristics (in Classification) See CLASSIFICATION.

Charge 1. To record the loan of a book to a borrower. 2. The record so made.

Charging system The method employed in a library to record the loans of books.

CHART

Chart 1. A map especially designed to meet the requirements of navigators, showing soundings, currents, shoals, coastlines, ports, harbours, compass variations, etc. 2. A map exhibiting meteorological phenomena, *i.e.* barometric pressure, weather, climate, etc., or magnetic variations. 3. A map of the heavens (star map). In collation, figures showing distances, dimensions or motion of celestial bodies are considered diagrams (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Charter An instrument whereby a sovereign or legislature grants rights to a person or corporation (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Check list 1. A comprehensive list of books, periodicals or other material, with the minimum of description and annotation needed for identification of the works recorded. 2. A record of volumes and parts of serials or continuations received by a library (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Check marks Marks pencilled by the cataloguer on the title-pages of material awaiting cataloguing, indicating to his assistants those parts of the title-page to be omitted when transcribing the catalogue entries. The system depends on the recognition of particular signs having a conventionalized meaning, *e.g.* [] may mean 'omit from all entries'; () may mean 'omit from author but include on subject entries, etc.'

Cheltenham A type designed by Goodhue in 1896, consisting of many series, *e.g.* Wide, Bold and Bold Condensed. The latter much used in publicity.

Chemical wood Wood reduced to pulp by chemical processes, which separate the cellulose fibres by dissolving the unwanted substances by either cooking in an acid (sulphite process) or an alkaline liquor (soda process). A modern development combines the chemical process with the mechanical method (*q.v.*) and gives papers intermediate in quality between mechanical and chemical wood.

Chiaroscuro A process by which several wood blocks are used in conjunction in one subject in order to render light and dark tones of one colour. Main black lines are given on the key block and the spaces of tone are cut

out on other blocks, one for each tone. Also called *Gravure en Camaïeu*. Process was used in Germany from 1508 especially by Lucas Cranach I, and was popular in Italy throughout the 15th century.

Chiffon silk A strong and durable silk material which can be used for mending and reinforcing paper in particularly valuable books, etc. It is so sheer that even small print is legible through it.

Children's libraries and librarianship The children's library service which exists to-day has grown up in two distinct periods over the last century. It was preceded by the provision made in the Mechanics' Institutes and the Sunday School libraries founded by Robert Raikes, both of which declined with the development of the educational system and the public library service in the latter half of the 19th century.

During the first period, which lasted until the passing of the Public Libraries Act of 1919, the service was largely confined to the urban areas and was severely handicapped by the imposition of the penny rate limitation. In many areas there was little or no provision made for children, especially those under twelve years of age, and it was unusual to provide separate accommodation for them. The bookstocks were limited in quantity and in scope, although during this period there was a substantial increase in the number of authors writing for children and a marked change in the character of children's books.

A few authorities did, however, endeavour to provide separate accommodation; amongst these was Manchester which opened the first children's room in 1861. Nottingham opened a separate children's room in 1882 in an attempt to 'counteract the mischievous influence of cheap and noxious fiction' and to extend the library facilities to children of 7 or 8 to 15 years of age. One of the most successful and comprehensive schemes was developed in Cardiff and embodied many of the present day activities of children's libraries, including organized visits of children during school hours for lessons by the librarian, the provision of collections of books in schools, reading halls, lantern lectures and facilities for home reading from the general lending departments.

Many libraries found it necessary to limit the frequency of the borrowing and in some cases boys and girls were not allowed to use the library at the same time. Reading rooms and lecture halls became a feature of the larger systems and some attempts were made to provide specialized staff.

The financial problems were partially overcome in some areas by the using of schools as distributing points. This method probably served a higher proportion of readers and no doubt encouraged co-operation between teachers and librarians but it did not necessarily lead to the use of public libraries in after-school life, nor did it result in the establishment of school libraries as they are known to-day. Book provision in schools was, however, generally admitted to be the responsibility of the education authority which frequently made grants to the public library for the provision of collections of books placed in schools.

The second period followed the passing of the Public Libraries Act of 1919, by which the crippling penny rate limitation was removed and County Councils were empowered to establish library services. These two factors resulted in a general expansion of the facilities in urban areas and of the pioneer schemes which had been started in some rural areas—at a time when education had just been made free and compulsory for all children up to the age of 14 years.

In the early years of the County Library service emphasis was placed on books rather than buildings, and hence, schools were largely used as distributing points and a high proportion of children's books were included in the collections. During the second decade or county libraries, many branch libraries were built in the urban areas hitherto unprovided for, and a service parallel to that in the municipal libraries developed with separate children's rooms in the larger branches and sections in the smaller ones. Provision of children's books in the rural areas continued in village centres, schools and by mobile libraries.

With changing conditions certain functions of the pre-1919 period inevitably disappeared, the segregation of boys and girls ceased; complete printed catalogues were superseded by

card and sheaf catalogues and selected book lists; film shows began to replace the lantern lectures; book selection became more and more the responsibility of librarians rather than committees. Extension activities within the library increased and there was a tendency both in municipal and county libraries to withdraw collections of books from the schools in an endeavour to attract children to the public library in the hope that its use in early life would be continued. But, generally, the work with children was an amplification and extension of that done in the earlier period.

The new conception of the function and scope of the school library and the recognition of its place in all types of schools which resulted from the Education Act of 1944 has already caused a much wider use of books by all children and a greater interest in books and libraries by teachers. Many public library authorities were quick to seize the opportunity afforded to expand existing co-operative schemes with education authorities or to initiate new ones. The former 'deposit' collections in the schools have now become integral parts of the school library which has itself become a necessary instrument of education rather than an adjunct to it. The technical advice and assistance given by the public library staff on the organization and administration of school libraries has brought a new and greater understanding of the mutual aims and problems of the whole service.

Nevertheless the quality and the extent of the work shows startling inequalities and deficiencies in different areas. This was stressed in 1946 in the *Memorandum on work with young people* (revised in 1951) issued by the Library Association, in which it was stated that 'many public libraries have children's libraries that are ill-equipped, poorly stocked, badly staffed and severely limited in scope and range.' That this state still obtained was borne out by the *Survey of public library service for children*, 1954, undertaken by the Youth Libraries Section of the Library Association and published in 1955. This indicated that only about 200 authorities were maintaining a full service and employing trained staff for the purpose, whilst in many areas the service was limited to the issuing of books for home reading to a

limited age group, with no specialized staff. The 'full' service includes the provision of books for home-reading for children of all ages; reference books and periodicals for use within the library; extension activities to attract and retain readers and to improve the quality and widen the scope of their reading; co-operative schemes with schools to provide the necessary link between the two services, and the general encouragement of interest in children's reading.

A variety of methods employed was shown by the replies to the questionnaire issued by the Youth Libraries Section, e.g. some authorities had no lower age limit for the registration of borrowers, whilst others provided for the youngest children by issuing books to parents until the age of 6 or 7. Less than 100 authorities made separate provision for adolescents; all except 100 issued more than one ticket per child (usually for the use of non-fiction books only), all except 84 charged fines for overdue books, and all except 139 had schemes for the reservation of books. Children's reference books were not supplied by 160 of the authorities returning the questionnaire, and under some others the number supplied was negligible. Not more than half provided periodicals. Types of extension work generally undertaken included library lessons and/or class visits, book displays and story-hours. Less frequent were library magazines, book weeks, lectures, film shows, play reading groups, book quizzes, clubs and reading circles. Only 39 authorities maintained an exhibition stock, whilst 114 indicated that an illustration collection was available though not necessarily as part of the children's service.

Although stress has been laid from time to time on the necessity for trained staff in the children's library, e.g. the Library Association memorandum made recommendations regarding the appointment of trained librarians as organizers for both the school library service and the service to children and adolescents through the public library, the number of specialist staff shown by the survey is lamentably small. Only 213 authorities had designated posts, and of these only 181 were on the administrative, professional and technical grades.

Little training has been available in this

country in the past; a short course of lectures at the School of Librarianship and Archives, University of London, was discontinued in 1951; a few local authorities have organized short courses from time to time, and the Youth Libraries Section of the Library Association has held four week-end schools. In 1954 the first full-time course (of six weeks duration) was held at the North Western Polytechnic, London.

In 1946 a specialist certificate on Library Work with Young People was included in the Library Association syllabus as a part of the final examination. It was subsequently removed from the final examination but reinstated later with a broadened syllabus which covers literature; child and adolescent psychology; planning, equipment, organization and development; and education and educational institutions.

The Association of Children's Librarians formed in 1937 existed for some years as an independent body before becoming, in 1947, the Youth Libraries Section of the Library Association. The membership (which is not limited to those actively engaged in children's library work) is nearly a thousand and the objects of the Section are 'to encourage the discussion of and to promote interest in all matters relating to young people's libraries and literature by means of meetings, publications and in such other ways as may be deemed desirable, with a view to increasing the efficiency of youth libraries and furthering the objects set forth in the Charter of the Library Association' and 'to collect and disseminate information relating to young people's literature and use all means in its power to raise the standard of book production and selection.'

Rees, G. *Libraries for children*. London, Grafton, 1924.

Sayers, W. C. B. *A manual of children's libraries*. London, Allen & Unwin and Library Association, 1932.

Library Association Memorandum: 'Work with young people and school libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1951, 53, 111.

Survey of public library service for children. Library Association (Youth Libraries Section), 1954.

N.A.D.

Chinese paper A soft, thin, yellowish paper made in China from bamboo fibre and used for impressions of engravings.

Chinese style Having pages printed on double leaves, i.e. with unopened folds at the fore-edges, and interior pages blank. The term Japanese style is used when a Japanese book of the same type is described in cataloguing (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Chrestomathy A collection of passages from various works of a single author, or from several authors, selected for a particular purpose, most often for the use of those learning a language.

Chromolithography A method of lithographic printing in colours by means of separate stones or plates for each colour. Overprinting is sometimes used for more subtle tones. Also called colour lithography.

Chronicles These differ from annals in being more connected and full, though like annals, the events are treated in the order of time (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Chronogram A motto or inscription in which occur Roman numerals, often written as upper-case letters, that, added together or read in sequence, express a date (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Chronological order An arrangement by date (time). Usually employed in subsections of a classification scheme where the material lends itself to this order, e.g. history.

Works may also be arranged in chronological order of publication so that the most recent works are brought together.

Chrysography 1. The art of writing in gold letters, as practised by medieval writers of manuscripts. 2. Handwriting in gold, as in medieval manuscripts (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Chute A sloping channel through which books or book containers may slide to a lower level. A substitute for the more elaborate mechanical book conveyor.

Cicris The Co-operative Industrial and Commercial Reference and Information Service is the West-London counterpart to the Sheffield Interchange Organization (*q.v.*), and is an

attempt to co-ordinate the provision of technical and commercial books and periodicals, and locate wanted items without delay. Ten public libraries, together with 48 other institutions (industrial firms, research associations and other interested bodies) in the area covered by the West-London district of the South-East Regional Board for Industry, have sent lists of their holdings which have been analysed and indexed at Acton (periodicals), Hammersmith (abstracts and indexes), Middlessex (trade directories and yearbooks), Southall (commercial newspapers) and Ealing (technical and other dictionaries). Certain public libraries in the scheme are concentrating their purchases in limited technical fields, with a view to building up comprehensive collections of materials in them. Inaugurated in 1951, the Service has the support of D.S.I.R. and the British Productivity Council. More than 1,800 periodical titles are included in the index of locations. A committee representing industry (two members), public libraries (two) and technical colleges (one), led by the Chairman of the District Advisory Committee of the London and South-Eastern Regional Board for Industry, directs the enterprise. An explanatory booklet and publicity leaflets have been printed and distributed widely in the area.

Rates, R. D. *Regional information and library services for industry through co-operation.* (International Congress of Libraries and Documentation Centres, 1955. Communications Vol. IIA, pp. 96-8.)

Circulating libraries See SUBSCRIPTION AND CIRCULATING LIBRARIES.

Circulation desk A service point in a library.
1. In lending libraries for loan transactions.
2. in reference libraries for the requisition of books.

Clasp A metal fastening for a book; sometimes arranged with a lock.

Class entry The entry of a work in a catalogue under the name of the subject class to which it belongs, as distinct from entry under its precise subject (specific entry). For example, the entry of a work on Violets under the heading Flowers or Botany rather than under Violets.

CLASS LIST

Class list A list of books restricted to a subject class or a group of related subjects, usually arranged in a systematic order according to a book classification scheme.

Class number See CLASSIFICATION.

Classification Systematic arrangement, be it of ideas, scientific specimens, books or documents is vital if one is to obtain the best use of one's collection. The O.E.D. definition of classification is 'the action of classifying or arranging in classes according to common characteristics or affinities' and this article considers bibliographical classification, i.e. the classification of books. A discussion of documentation, the classification of articles, papers, references, etc., appears elsewhere.

It has been noticed from ancient times that the most useful arrangement of books for their exploitation is by subjects, and the history of bibliographical classification, right up to modern times, is one of attempts to divide universal knowledge into its various parts and to arrange these parts (or subjects) in varying systematic orders, so as to bring related subjects together in some degree of affinity, thus automatically separating unlike subjects. There should be provision for all subjects past, present, and so far as is possible, future.

Unfortunately, the result, even using the most modern schemes, is not an unqualified success. Books are the written expression of man's ideas and these ideas are complicated. Several subjects may be discussed in one book, one subject may be discussed from several aspects. Both factors may appear together. The way in which books on the same subject are presented to the reader may differ, or the standard of knowledge required may vary, e.g. nuclear physics. Readers require books for different purposes and an arrangement that satisfies one may not satisfy another.

Classification schemes which attempt to list all parts of knowledge so that a librarian may pigeon-hole his book neatly are called *enumerative*. Sub-classes are formed from a more general class *deductively*. As there are many books which seem to fit several pigeon holes partially but, perhaps, none properly, attempts have been made during the present century to build up classification schemes *inductively* from certain fundamental concepts which may be

combined in various ways to form a *synthesized* concept for a whole book. Then groups of books in these *analytico-synthetic* schemes may be arranged into classes. A complete scheme may then be built from the base up, instead of from the top down.

Let us consider now the growth of enumerative classification schemes and the principles on which they are based. Knowledge may be divided into major classes which accord broadly with generally accepted ideas. For example, the method of study in use from time to time in schools and universities is one obvious example. Another method is to base one's scheme on philosophical concepts such as Francis Bacon's *Chart of Human Learning*, (1623) or again to adopt a so-called 'evolutionary order.'

Whatever order is chosen certain *rules of division* such as those enumerated in W. C. Berwick Sayers' *Introduction to library classification* must be adhered to, in order to ensure that so far as possible one subject can fit into only one place in the classification scheme. Otherwise the possibility of entry under more than one head or *cross-classification* appears.

To divide a class of books into smaller groups a *characteristic* is chosen which should be used consistently at any one step in the division. A characteristic is a quality which is common to all divisions but appears with a *difference* in each, e.g. history may be divided by time and within each division the time will be different.

In turn, each subject may be divided into a series of more specific subjects *in chain*. It is also necessary in libraries to arrange for co-equal subjects to be considered side by side *in array*, e.g. physics, chemistry and mathematics are all co-equal divisions of the class science. Arithmetic, algebra and geometry are co-equal divisions of the class mathematics.

This dual relationship between subjects in chain and array can be represented on the shelves in line only, and similar subjects do in fact become separated at times. One of the aims of modern bibliographical classification is to bring out in the notation (see below) and in the catalogue different aspects and relationships of subjects not apparent immediately from the book's position on the shelves.

Classification schemes must allow new

subjects to be inserted at a suitable point without dislocation of the rest of the scheme. This is discussed further under *notation*. Many arbitrary arrangements of books were made before the first attempt to provide a modern classification scheme, Melvil Dewey's now famous Decimal Classification (q.v.).

The most important schemes are:

Decimal Classification of Melvil Dewey.

(First publ. 1876. 14th ed., 1942. Standard (15th) ed., 1951.)

Expansive Classification of C. A. Cutter.

(First six expansions 1891-3. 7th expansion 1893-1903 (unfinished).)

Subject Classification of J. D. Brown.

(First publ. 1906. 3rd ed., 1939.)

Bibliographic Classification of H. E. Bliss.

(Outline publ. 1935. Complete ed. first publ. 1952-53.)

Colon Classification of S. R. Ranganathan.

(First publ. 1933. 4th ed., 1952.)

Universal Decimal Classification. (First

publ. 1905. English ed. outline 1948. Full schedules in progress.)

Library of Congress Classification. (First

publ. 1904 in parts. Constant revision in progress.)

For details of any of the above schemes readers should look under the appropriate heading in the encyclopaedia.

Book Classification schemes require certain parts and features to make them workable, viz.:

- (a) Schedules.
- (b) A notation.
- (c) An index.
- (d) A class or classes for very general works (e.g. encyclopaedias) often called 'generalia'.
- (e) A class or classes for books in which the form of presentation is more important than the subject matter (e.g. literature).
- (f) Facilities for making special collections of books.
- (g) Auxiliary schedules and tables, used within the notation, for indicating aspects that recur constantly in several different subjects (e.g. time, geographical location). These are called mnemonic devices (mnemonic = memory aiding).

Parts of a Classification Scheme

- (a) Schedules. Once the order and detail in

which subjects are to appear in any particular scheme has been decided, it is necessary to write down and to fix that order. This may be done by allocating certain places on the library shelves to certain books (known as *fixed location*) or by noting the order of the subjects on the books themselves and arranging the books relative to each other, so that they may be moved about and fresh books inserted at any point without disturbing the main order. This is known as *relative location* and is the principle upon which modern schemes work.

Thus systematic lists of subjects known as schedules are made and the order is fixed conveniently by means of notation.

(b) *Notation*. A notation is the ordered series of symbols that stands for the ordered series of terms in the classification schedules. This denoting of order is a most important feature and, because of that, it is usual to use only symbols to which the public attach a sense of order. This restricts us generally to the use of the alphabet and ordinary arabic numerals. Punctuation marks and arbitrary symbols are sometimes used, but usually as agents for dividing one aspect of a book from another, or for linking subjects.

If only one type of symbol is used the notation is called *pure*, otherwise *mixed*. So that the symbol for a specific subject shall not be overlong, it is now considered advisable to use a mixed notation. This permits a large number of subjects to be represented by combinations of few symbols. In other words, the use of letters of the alphabet for main classes provides a *wide base*, the use of numerals makes a *narrow base* which cramps the classification unduly.

As it is necessary to be able to insert new subjects at will, the notation must allow for this insertion both for co-ordinate and sub-ordinate subjects. Subordination is allowed for easily by decimal use of numbers (or the use of letters on the same principle) and this use is discussed further under DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION. The insertion of co-ordinate subjects can be allowed for by leaving gaps at various points but these gaps are not always in the correct places. New synthetic schemes, which rely on 'number-building' have other conventions and devices such as the *octave*

CLASSIFICATION

device suggested by Ranganathan and used in the Colon Classification (*q.v.*). Marks applied to books indicating the notation are called class marks or class numbers.

(c) *Index*. An alphabetical subject index is provided so that the number or combination of symbols representing the subject sought may be found. Thus, as we know the position of that number in the order of the schedules we may go to that position and select our material, be it a book or any other repository of recorded information.

The most usual form of index is known as a *relative index*. This, under any heading, lists all related aspects of the subject that may appear elsewhere in the schedules as well as the position of the chief topic, *e.g.*

Classification:

chemistry	541.9
in office files	651.53
library	025.4
philosophy	112

Nearly every modern scheme provides a relative index. One scheme, the Subject Classification, has a *specific index*, which aims to note one place only for each subject including all its aspects. This aim is discussed further in the article on the Subject Classification.

(d) *General Works*. A class is usually provided at the commencement of a scheme for General Works or Generalia, works which are too wide in scope to be contained under any of the main subject classes. Obvious examples are encyclopaedias and newspapers not devoted to special topics.

Sometimes subjects which are considered 'pervasive' of many other subjects such as bibliography in the Decimal Classification and Mathematics in the Subject Classification are included.

(e) *Form Classes* or divisions are used to contain those works which are required more for the way in which they are written or presented than their subject content. Literature is the prime example of this type of class. Care must be taken to distinguish between literature studied as a subject (criticism) and works of literature (texts) and schemes provide for this kind of distinction.

(f) *Special Collections*. Places are often provided for special collections (*e.g.* 080 in the Decimal Classification and Y in the

Subject Classification for collections of books of local interest).

The practice in most libraries is to remove special collections from the main sequence and to subdivide them by specially made classifications more minutely than the general schemes allow.

Special libraries often extract or adapt schedules from the Library of Congress or Universal Decimal schemes or construct their own. The Bibliographic scheme is also suitable for some of these libraries but the schedules have been completed too recently (1953) for much evidence to be available.

(g) *Auxiliary Schedules and Tables* are added to the main subject numbers to bring out relationships, often recurring subdivisions of the same type common to different subjects, time, locality, etc.

They are employed in a varying degree by all the important classifications noted above and are discussed more fully in the articles on those schemes.

Broadly, these auxiliaries fall into three groups:

1. Schedules which are common and may be applied with the same meaning throughout the classification, *e.g.* Decimal Classification, common subdivisions.
2. Schedules which are common to certain groups of subjects and which may be applied to those subjects only, *e.g.* Bibliographic Classification, Systematic and Auxiliary Schedule 5.
3. Schedules which can be applied in one place only as in most Library of Congress Classification Schedules.

Symbols which may be applied at different points in the scheme to convey the same meaning at each point are memory aiding devices and are known as *mnemonics*. The common subdivisions of the Decimal Classification as noted above are classical examples of mnemonics.

Two subject numbers are often joined together to denote a composite subject and numerous linking symbols have been employed to denote changes of aspect and varying degrees of combination. For example, 'O' is used in the Decimal Classification to denote the addition of a common form division.

+ is used in the U.D.C. to denote that a work is on two subjects.

[] is used in the U.D.C. to denote that one subject is subordinate to another.

, (comma) may be used in Bliss to separate parts of the notation that might otherwise be confused.

: (colon) is used as a basic device in the classification of that name.

A closer study of the principle of analysing a subject into its constituent parts and the building up of the notation to represent the composite subject will be found in the articles on the Universal Decimal and Colon Classification schemes.

See also BIFURCATE CLASSIFICATION; CLASSIFICATION, BROAD; CLASSIFICATION, SPECIAL; LITERARY WARRANT; MNEMONICS; PREDICABLES.

Students' textbooks:

Marr, M. *Introduction to cataloguing and the classification of books*. 2nd ed., 1943. (American. Has bibliog., refs.)

Palmer, B. I. and Wells, A. J. *The fundamentals of library classification*. 1951.

Phillips, W. H. *A primer of book classification*. Rev. ed., 1955.

Ranganathan, S. R. *Elements of library classification*. 1945.

Savage, E. A. *Manual of book classification and display for public libraries*. 1946.

Sayers, W. C. B. *An introduction to library classification*. 9th ed., 1954.

A manual of classification. 3rd ed., 1955. (Has extensive bibliography.)

More advanced works:

Bliss, H. E. *The organization of knowledge and the system of the sciences*. 1929.

The organization of knowledge in libraries and the subject approach to books. 2nd ed., 1939.

Broadfield, A. *The philosophy of classification*. 1946.

Ranganathan, S. R. *Prolegomena to library classification*. 1937.

Richardson, E. C. *Classification*. 3rd ed., 1930.

(Has appendix listing systems of classification, theoretical and practical, 428-347 B.C., Plato—A.D. 1910, Bliss.)

E.R.J.H.

Classification, broad The arrangement of books or other material under wide general

headings rather than under the most specific headings that will contain them. Close classification is arrangement under the most specific head.

Advocates of broad classification consider that too minute a classification on the shelves tends to scatter related material, as well as to bring it together, particularly where chapters may be found in general books.

This feature was considered exhaustively by Miss G. O. Kelley (U.S.A.) who considered the two chief groups of factors adversely affecting the usefulness of closely classified books were, those 'inherent in classification itself' and 'Those which are due to limitations in its practical application to books.' Miss Kelley would rely largely on the dictionary catalogue to trace specific material. Whereas the dictionary catalogue is the most popular form in America, the classified catalogue is much more common in Britain and her views are not fully accepted here. In fact she herself has modified them since their publication.

Broad classification may be employed profitably in junior libraries, popular recreational book groupings and display work.

For serious study and research work it would appear imperative to employ the closest possible analysis, at least in the catalogue.

Kelley, G. O. *The classification of books: an enquiry into its usefulness to the reader*. 1938.

Classification code A set of rules to help a classifier to place books consistently in a classification scheme, together with explanations of the scope of different classes and subjects.

Claims of related subjects to take particular types of books are examined and decided upon.

William Stetson Merrill's *Code for classifiers*, 2nd ed., 1939, has 365 numbered rules and considers most difficult subjects, with special reference to their placing in the Dewey Decimal and Library of Congress Classifications.

Classification, special To apply a general classification scheme to a collection or library whose main purpose is the intensive collection of material in a specific field of knowledge is

CLASSIFICATION, SPECIAL

at the same time wasteful and inadequate—wasteful because much of the general scheme will remain unused, inadequate because the divisions and auxiliary tables will be insufficiently detailed to give the relationships and depth of classification required.

Possible exceptions to this rule are the Library of Congress and Universal Decimal Classifications of which very minutely divided parts can be used separately.

It is not practicable to list here the numerous special classifications available, and only one example is given below but the following will give some indication of their variety. General. Thornton, J. L. *Special library methods*. 1940.

Fiction. Burgess, L. A. 'A fiction policy.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1943, 36, 76–81.

Insurance. Pendleton, O. W. 'Classification for a special library.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 205–8.

Librarianship. Stewart, J. D. *A tabulation of librarianship*. 1947.

Local collection. See below.

Medical. Barnard, C. C. *Classification for medical and veterinary libraries*. 2nd ed., 1955.

Music. McColvin, L. R. and Reeves, H. *Music libraries*, 2 vols. 1937–39.

School library. Fegan, E. S. and Cant, M. *A library classification for schools: the Cheltenham classification*. 1937.

University College. Garside, K. 'The basic principles of the new library classification at University College, London.' *J. Document.*, 1954, 10, 169.

Local collections Most public libraries keep special collections of books, prints, maps, manuscripts and allied material about and printed in their own locality.

The local interest predominates and general schemes of classification are of little use in the arrangement of material. Such are the peculiarities of individual districts that the librarian usually has to produce a home-made scheme, tailored to his stock, not forgetting possible future additions.

Certain broad rules may be laid down and schemes already working may be adapted.

Works about the locality may be separated from works printed in the district or by local authors not about the area. If the first method

of division is geographical, wards, natural regions or ordnance map numbers may be used, although none by itself is entirely suitable. Within each sub-area division may proceed by subject, e.g. churches, schools, etc. A suitable notation must be provided for the whole, embracing both books and other material.

Brown, J. D. *Subject classification*. 3rd ed., 1939. Para. 47.

Hobbs, J. L. *Libraries and the materials of local history*. 1948. Chapter XIII.

Ormerod, J. 'Classification and cataloguing of local collections.' *Libr. World*, 1926–27, 29, 147–51, 168–74.

Philip, A. J. *An outline of a scheme for the classification of local collections* . . . 1953.

Sayers, W. C. B. *Library local collections*. 1939. Chapter IV.

Catalogues of local collections of individual libraries, e.g. Gloucester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, are also available.

Example of a special scientific and technical classification.

Systematic classification of scientific, technological, information on rubber (The Dawson or I.C.C.R.I Code).

Origin

This system for classifying information on rubber was devised, in its original form by T. R. Dawson (1889–1951) who was head of the Intelligence Division, Research Association of British Rubber Manufacturers from 1926–51.

Before embarking on a new system, Dawson examined existing widely-used ones, especially the Universal Decimal Classification, but he found that classifications devised to cover the whole of knowledge were not suitable for use in a small and specialized field such as rubber. Subjects of rubber interest would be widely scattered, for example, tyres under transport, mackintoshes under clothing and rubber manufacture in a third place. Moreover, at that time such systems were hopelessly out of date in relation to rubber. Obviously a library dealing entirely with rubber needed its own compact and unified classification system, by means of which like subjects would be brought together, making

the information immediately available for the answering of enquiries.

Construction and use

The Dawson Code first appeared in print in 1937 (*J. Rubb. Res.*, 1937, 6, 67-132) by which time it had been in use for several years in the RABRM library and 170,000 abstract cards had been classified by it. The classification was thus built on the basis of existing information; it was not a hypothetical system into which actual information might or might not fit. A revised version of the Code was published in the *J. Rubb. Res.*, 1942, 11, 23-65.

Twelve main classes are used: these are:

0. General; the rubber industry as a whole.
1. Plants producing latex and rubber; planting, cultivation, collection.
2. Natural latex.
- 2S. Synthetic latex.
3. Crude rubber.
- 3S. Synthetic rubbers and like products.
4. Compounding ingredients.
5. Fibres and textiles.
6. Vulcanized rubber and articles made from it.
7. Works processes and materials.
8. Machinery and appliances.
9. Economics, organization.

Each one of these main classes is finely subdivided but instead of following the Decimal System which only allows of nine subdivisions of equal standing, by the simple expedient of using brackets, any number of equal subdivisions may be made. In the general machinery class, 81, for example, there are considerably more than nine types of machine, so after 819 Calenders, one continues 81(10) Extruders, 81(11) Moulding presses, and so on. This gives the system enormous flexibility as new classes can be added indefinitely as new machinery, processes, compounding ingredients and goods are developed.

Another feature is the use of a mixed notation with some mnemonic properties. For example, the long list of materials in the general compounding ingredients section, 421, is for convenience arranged in alphabetical order but instead of aluminium compounds being 421I, they are 421A1 and so on to zinc sulphide which is 421ZS instead of 421(27). The advantage of this is that any new material

can be inserted in its proper alphabetical order instead of having to be tacked on the end as 421(28). A further minor practical advantage arising from the use of letters is that they break up long numbers, as in 4262Re2921 for example, making them easier to read and cutting down the chances of error in copying them.

Besides the main framework and its subdivisions referred to above, considerable use is made of two auxiliary tables. The first (Table A) gives subdivisions relating to manufacture, types, properties, testing, treatment and applications. An (A) following the class in the main table indicates that Table A can be used. Thus 66B21 Conveyer belts(A) indicates that 66B21.1 can be used for manufacture of conveyer belts, 66B21.2 for types, and so on. The second auxiliary table, A-Z, lists 12 types of rubber goods, represented by letters, e.g. A. Tyres; B. Belting; C. Cables and so on. This table may be used after any class in the main table where the letters (A-Z) appear. For example, 7543 Packing (A-Z) means that information on packing of tyres is classified under 7543A, on packing of belting under 7543B, and so on.

A good example of the flexibility of the system is the way it has been expanded to deal with the enormous development in synthetic rubbers since 1940. When the system was devised interest in synthetic rubbers was slight and they were classified under 323 (type of rubber). As development took place, the information was transferred to a major class 3S, which was subdivided finely on the basis of the chemical constitution of the various rubbers, provision being made for copolymers from any two or more monomers. By the use of the A table, nearly all the classes used for natural rubber can be used for particular synthetic rubbers. Thus compounding butadiene-styrene copolymer with carbon black becomes 3S2D21MD23.5421C6-R, the 5 being the 'treatment' subdivision of Table A and the 421C6-R coming from Section 4 of the main classification; and making inner tubes from Butyl rubber becomes 3S2D25MD22.666A24.1, the first 6 being the 'application' subdivision of Table A and the 66A24 coming from Section 66A of the main classification. Thus all the information

CLASSIFIED CATALOGUE

(manufacture, properties, goods) on a particular synthetic rubber is grouped together under that rubber. While this has its advantages, it is a distinct disadvantage when information on particular goods is desired, for as well as looking in the appropriate 66 section where information on goods made from vulcanized natural rubber will be found, it is necessary to look in the sections for every material from which the goods might be made, and these may include latex and rubber derivatives as well as any of the many synthetic rubbers. A simple way out would be to have two cards and file one under the material and the second under the goods.

International developments

The Code has been used for many years by the Institut Français du Caoutchouc in Paris and the Rubber-Stichting in Delft as well as by research organizations in the Far East. During the Second World War, due to lack of communication between these organizations and RABRM, considerable differences in usage arose. Since the war, strenuous efforts have been made by the three bodies to standardize the Code and its use. Since 1951, representatives of these three bodies have been meeting annually and form the International Committee for the Classification of Rubber Information I.C.C.R.I. with its secretariat at Delft. No changes may now be made in the Code without the approval of this Committee.

Abstracts published in the monthly RABRAM journal *Rubber Abstracts* are arranged by this Code, the classification being printed at the end of each abstract, and as this journal has a world-wide distribution, it can be claimed that the Code is internationally known.

M.J.M.

Classified catalogue A catalogue of subject entries arranged in systematic order according to a scheme of classification. Unlike other subject catalogues the entry headings are not verbal statements of subject but consist of notation symbols which represent subjects and also convey the order of the schedules of the classification scheme adopted. Therefore a classification scheme which groups related subjects together and also displays a logical

hierarchy of subjects will achieve these results when its notation is used for the arrangement of a classified catalogue. Consequently the chief virtue of this catalogue lies precisely in its systematic arrangement, enabling the enquirer to survey the library's resources within a subject class, and aiding the single-subject enquirer by filing the entries for allied and related subjects in proximity.

In use the catalogue suffers from the singular disadvantage that the user, unless fully conversant with the classification, is unable to comprehend the sequence of entries. To alleviate this, indexes are usually provided to act as keys to the arrangement and allow approach through the factors of subject-name, form, series, title, author, editor, etc. These indexes are arranged in alphabetical order and refer the reader by means of the classification number to the relevant point in the catalogue sequence. The usual indexes are a subject index, author index, title index and series index, the latter three frequently being combined into one, and sometimes all four.

When fully equipped with the necessary indexes (or ancillary catalogues) the classified catalogue offers all the methods of approach to the library's stock which the dictionary form provides.

Classifier One who assigns books to their correct place in classification schemes.

Clean proof A proof or revise pulled after all corrections have been made.

Cliché 1. In printing, a stereotype or electrotype plate. 2. Grammatically, phrases overworked by popular use until reputable authors will no longer use them.

Close classification See CLASSIFICATION, BROAD and CLASSIFICATION.

Close matter Lines unlead or thinly spaced.

Close score The score of a musical work for three or more voices, in which the music is printed on two staves (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Close up To push type closer together by removing hair spaces or leads.

Closed entry The catalogue entry for a multi-volumed work or a serial publication,

bearing completed bibliographical information covering all the parts of the work (*i.e.* a complete set).

A library adding to its stock the volumes or parts of such a work will normally institute an 'open entry' (*q.v.*) bearing incomplete imprint, collation, and possibly title, statements which may stand until the publication itself is complete or discontinued, it being then possible to add the final details and close the entry.

Closed shelves Library shelves not open to the public, or open to a limited category only. Usually reserved for rare or valuable books.

Cloth A generic term applied indiscriminately to the binding of any volume fully bound in cloth. The use of cloth as a binding material dates from about 1820.

Cloth joints Cloth used to reinforce the joints on the inside of heavy or large books.

Cloth sides Having cloth as the side material, as in half, quarter, and three-quarter binding.

Clothbound Bound in full cloth, with stiff boards.

Clumps Metal line spacing material thicker than 6 point.

Coated paper Paper coated with china clay or similar material and calendered to secure a highly-polished surface for use in process work. Usually glossy, coated papers may be had in other grades, *e.g.* dull coated. Superior grades are brush coated, *i.e.* the coating is applied after the paper has been dried, and not as in machine coated applied during actual making.

Cobden-Sanderson, T. J. (1840-1922). Founder of the famous Doves Press at Hammersmith; also ranks as one of the great bookbinders of modern times.

Cochin, Charles Nicolas the Younger (1715-90) A famous name in French engraving and printing in the 18th century, the most celebrated of a prominent family of engravers and painters. He was one of the first to produce engraved title pages, which ornamented many dainty volumes of that period and which were imitated up to the end of that century by all

the illustrators who followed. He provided engravings of editions of La Fontaine, Rousseau, Boccaccio, Tasso and Ariosto.

Cock-up initial One that extends above the first line of the text although aligning at the foot.

Cockle Excess moisture or heat will cause paper and board to wrinkle and distort, hence paper storage must be under temperature and humidity controlled conditions.

Code mark An indication of purchase made in code on the back of a title page.

For example, 27/1506/8.55 may be translated as 'Bought from the bookseller whose accounts code number is 27, at a cost of 15s. 6d., during August, 1955.'

Codex An ancient manuscript written on wax-covered tablets of metal, wood or ivory called codices; later, a manuscript on sheets of paper or vellum bound together like a book, particularly of the scriptures or classics. There are about 114 Bible manuscripts known, dating from the 4th to the 10th centuries, in uncial characters, and about 1,200 from the 9th to the 16th centuries, in cursive characters.

In classical times, manuscripts were usually written upon rolls of papyrus or upon parchment, but as early as the 1st century B.C. vellum tablets were used for memoranda and by the 1st century A.D. manuscripts or codices with pages like those of a modern book were produced (*A.L.A. Gloss., Book. Gloss.*).

Cole size card A card devised by George Watson Cole for determining the size of books.

Colines, Simon de (1475-1547) French printer, noted for the delicacy of execution of his books. Associated with the Estiennes in introducing from Italy roman types, handy formats and inexpensive editions. He introduced the first good Greek fount with accents and was the first in France to use italic type for whole books. His edition of Ruel's *De Natura Stirpium*, Libri-Tres Paris, 1536, is considered a masterpiece of book production.

Collating 1. Checking the various printed sections of a work, signatures, pages, plate

COLLATING MARK

numbers, etc. to ascertain whether or not a copy of a book is complete and perfect; also to compare it with descriptions of perfect or apparently perfect copies found in bibliographies. 2. To compare minutely, page for page, and line for line, in order to determine whether or not two books are identical copies or variants.

Collating mark A small mark or number printed in such a position on the sheet that when the sheets of a book are folded and placed in the correct sequence, the marks or numbers will follow each other in a slanting and/or numerical sequence down the spine and thus show if any section has been duplicated or omitted or misplaced. Also called quad mark.

Collation That part of a catalogue entry which describes the physical constitution of the work catalogued.

The collation consists of three parts (A.A.:158-64):

1. The number of volumes, or, in the case of a work in one volume, the number of pages.
2. The kinds of illustration included, and their numbers, when this can be easily ascertained.
3. The size, i.e. the height of the book when standing upright, measured to the nearest half-centimetre. In the case of narrow, square or oblong books both dimensions may be given.

E.g.:

vii, [3], 234 p. Front. (port.), illus., 8 pl. (3 col.), map, diagrs. 23½ cm.

Translation: The work is in one volume, having seven pages roman-numbered followed by three unnumbered, and pages 1 to 234. The frontispiece is a portrait and in addition to a number of illustrations in the text there are eight plates of which three are coloured, a map, and a number of diagrams. The height of the book is 23½ centimetres.

Collation (by signature) A statement of the number of quires or gatherings comprising a book, listed by their signatures, with indications of the number of leaves gathered in each, e.g.: A-D⁸ E⁶ F-K⁸ L⁴.

Translation: There are eleven gatherings

signed A to L (excluding J). Those signed A, B, C and D each have eight leaves; E has six leaves; F, G, H, I and K have eight leaves; L has four. The book therefore has 82 leaves (164 pages).

Collection Three or more separate works or parts of works issued together and regarded as constituting a single whole (*cf.* COMPOSITE WORK).

Collective entries In selective cataloguing, several entries on one card for pamphlets on the same or related subjects. They may be either all author or all subject entries.

Collective title An inclusive title for a publication containing several works, as the collected works of an author or a composer, a collection of an author's or a composer's works of a certain type; or an inclusive title for the several works issued in a series (A.L.A. Gloss.).

Collotype A semi-intaglio photo-mechanical non-screen tone process depending partly on the lithographic principle. The sensitive material is gelatine and bichromate. Light hardens the gelatine and these parts retain ink while the soft parts not exposed to the light repel ink. Paper must be well sized to withstand the dampness of the gelatine.

Colon abbreviations A system of indicating the most common forenames by the use of the initial letter plus a colon (for masculine names) or two dots (for feminine names), sometimes used in catalogues. When used, these abbreviations convey full names with considerable economy of time and space, but since the general public do not know them, their use is normally restricted in public catalogues to those cases where ordinary initials would otherwise be used.

The list following is taken from Cutter, p. 161:

A: Augustus	Anna	A..
B: Benjamin	Beatrice	B..
C: Charles	Charlotte	C..
D: David	Delia	D..
E: Edward	Elizabeth	E..
F: Frederick, Frederic	Fanny, Fannie	F..
G: George	Grace	G..
H: Henry	Helen	H..

I: Isaac	Isabella	I..
J: John	Jane	J..
K: Karl	Katharine, Kate	K..
L: Louis, Lewis	Louise, Louisa	L..
M: Matthew	Mary	M..
N: Nicholas	Nancy	N..
O: Otto	Olivia	O..
P: Peter	Pauline	P..
R: Richard	Rebecca	R..
S: Samuel	Sarah	S..
T: Thomas	Theresa	T..
U: Uriah	Ursula	U..
V: Victor	Victoria	V..
W: William	Wilhelmina	W..
X: Xavier		
Z: Zachary	Zenobia	Z..

Colon classification CC (= Colon Classification) is an analytico-synthetic scheme. It is not enumerative. It does not enumerate or attempt to enumerate all possible classes in a single schedule as most schemes do. It confines enumeration to about 200 short, independent schedules. These occupy less than 150 pages, and yet the number of class numbers that can be constructed for use in book-classification is of the order of 10^{10} , which is far more than in others.

ANALOGY Classifying by CC is comparable to the work of an apothecary compounding a mixture according to a given prescription. The thought-content of the book classified gives the prescription. The 200 short schedules contain the basic drugs. The schedules of connecting symbols and phase relations contain the adhesives and other neutral materials needed to integrate the ingredients into a state of consistency. CC is also comparable to a Meccano set: the connecting symbols and the digits for phase relations are like its bolts and nuts; the other schedules give the various strips, wheels, rods, etc.

ILLUSTRATIONS 1. *Cure for diseases of rice-plant* The thought-content has the four ingredients—Agriculture; Rice; Disease; and Cure. Rules prescribe that these be assembled in the sequence shown above. The schedules (for main classes, plants and problems given in the chapter on Agriculture, and handling of disease given in the chapter on Medicine) give the numbers for the respective ingredients. Putting them together with the prescribed

connecting symbols, we get the class number J381.4:6.

2. *Cure for diseases of the stem of the rice-plant* The only new ingredient is Stem. Rules prescribe its insertion immediately after Rice. The schedule for organs in the chapter on Agriculture gives 4 as its number. The connecting symbol prescribed is a comma. The resulting class number is J381.4:4:6.

3. *Cure for diseases of the stem of the rice-plant, in India up to the 20th century* This has two additional ingredients. The rules prescribe their insertion at the end. The Geographical and the Chronological schedules give their numbers as 44 and N respectively. The connecting symbol prescribed for each is a full stop. The resulting class number is J381.4:4:6.44.N.

THREE PLANES Stated in general terms, CC conceives the designing and the applying of a scheme of classification as involving work in three planes: Idea, Notation and Words. There is correspondence between the terms and statements pertaining to them. Class, Class Number and Subject are corresponding or equivalent terms in these planes. Isolate is a generic term applicable to all the three planes. Focus is a generic term to denote an isolate or a class or any of its equivalents in the other planes. Facet is a generic term to denote the totality of isolates formed on the basis of a single train of characteristics germane to a basic class. It is also used to denote any single isolate.

POSTULATES CC bases itself on a number of postulates. These are not taken from any metaphysical system. They are chosen only because: (i) They secure a more or less helpful sequence among the known classes of knowledge; (ii) They are of use in finding a more or less helpful place for a newly emerging class, among the already existing ones with little disturbance to their own established sequence; and (iii) They make the scheme more or less self-perpetuating and thus increase its expectation of life. Here are some important postulates as samples, with short annotations and examples.

1. Any class is either (i) A main or a basic class forming a subject by itself (e.g. Agriculture, Algebra, Metaphysics); or (ii) An integration of it with any number of isolates not

COLON CLASSIFICATION

capable of forming subjects by themselves (e.g. Rice-plant or Disease can yield a subject only when integrated with a main class like agriculture); or (iii) An integration of two or more classes, each of these thereby becoming phases of the over-all class (e.g. Agricultural geology, i.e. Geology expounded to suit the needs of agriculturists).

2. Any facet or isolate is a manifestation of one or other of the Five Fundamental Categories: Personality, Matter, Energy, Space and Time. These will be denoted for brevity by [P], [M], etc. The sequence in which they are mentioned above is the sequence of their decreasing concreteness. They are arranged in the same sequence in any class number. As a result, books will be arranged on the shelves, and their entries in the catalogue, in an ascending sequence of the concreteness of their respective thought-contents. This is helpful.

3. [E] may manifest itself more than once in one and the same subject. We shall call them Rounds of [E]. We shall denote them by [1E], [2E], [3E], etc. (e.g. Disease and Cure.) Their sequence is determined more or less uniquely by the nature of the subject.

4. Any [E] may start a new Round of [P] and [M]. (e.g. After Disease, Virus may come as the casual organism; it is a [P]. After that, may come Cure.)

5. [P] and [M] may manifest themselves within one and the same round more than once. Each such manifestation is a Level. The following kinds of symbols will be used for brevity: [1P₂] for level 2 of [P] in round 1. [2P₁] for level 1 of [P] in round 2. The Gestalt of the facets of a subject is more or less uniquely determined by each subject, according to our present way of thinking.

6. [S] and [T] can ordinarily occur only in the last round (e.g. see illustration 3, given earlier).

7. Each array of isolates has 4 Zones, holding respectively enumerated common isolates, common isolates by subject device, enumerated special isolates and special isolates by alphabetical or chronological device.

NOTATION To implement in the notational plane the above postulates of the idea plane, CC uses a Mixed Notation using: 1. Roman lower case letters to denote phrase-relations,

and for zone one. 2. Packeted class numbers (i.e. enclosed in circular brackets) for zone two. 3. Hindu-Arabic numerals to denote geographical isolates and certain main classes, and for zone three. 4. Roman capitals to denote chronological isolates and most of the main classes, and for zone four. 5. The digit 9 as a non-significant octavizing digit to secure Hospitality in Array. 6. Punctuation marks as connecting symbols. 7. Local value of a digit as in Decimal Fraction to secure Hospitality in Chain. 8. The absolute values of digits in such a way that the species fall in ascending sequence as follows: Connecting symbols, Roman l.c., Packeted numbers, Arabic numerals, and Roman capitals. Further the addition of a Roman l.c. to a number makes the resulting number anterior to the original. This brings the approach materials such as bibliography, encyclopaedia, etc., of a subject, just before the treatises on it; (e.g. Ja (= Bibliography of agriculture) comes before J). A few Greek letters are used to represent partial comprehensions of main classes and a few main classes in excess of the 26 represented by Roman capitals. (e.g. Γ, Physical sciences. λ, Animal husbandry. Σ, Social sciences.)

DOCUMENTARY CLASSIFICATION The procedure in CC is in five stages: 1. Filling up ellipsis in title or name of subject and analysis into phases, facets and zones. 2. Transformation to suit the syntax of the classificatory language. 3. Standardization of the isolate terms. 4. Translation into isolate numbers, and if the published schedule is inadequate, sharpening foci, or adding new foci or facet according to prescribed rules. 5. Synthesis of isolate numbers with the aid of connecting symbols.

Example (MC) denotes Main Class. O Title: Efficiency of Rama sprinkler for stem-virus of paddy. 1. Analysis: (Restored elliptical terms are in italics) Agric (MC); Efficiency [3E]; Rama sprinkler [3M₁]; Chemical [3P₁]; Cure [2E]; Stem [1P₂]; Virus [2P₁]; Disease [1E]; Paddy [1P₁]. 2. Transformation: (MC) Agric; [1P₁] Paddy; [1P₂] Stem; [1E] Disease; [2P₁] Virus; [2E] Cure; [3P₁] Chemical; [3M₁] Rama sprinkler; [3E] Efficiency. 3. Standardization: (MC) Agric; [1P₁] Rice; [1P₂] Stem; [1E] Disease; [2P₁] Virus; [2E]

Therapeutics; [3P1] Pharmaco; [3M1] Rama sprinkler; [3E] Criticism. 4. *Translation*: (MC) J; [1P1] 381; [1P2] 4; [1E] 4; [2P1] 23; [2E] 6; [3P1] 3; [3M1] R; [3E] g. 5. *Synthesis*: J381.4:423:63;R:g.

Remarks: The numbers for [2E] and [3P1] are obtained from the schedule for Medicine. The number for [3M1] is obtained by the alphabetical device. There are 16 digits in the class number. These make it co-extensive with the thought-content of the document and expressive of each of its essential and relevant facets. Without this, arrangement will become an unhelpful hotch-potch. The long class number is the result of minute proliferations in the universe of microthought embodied in articles in periodicals. Efficient, exact and expeditious documentation service for research workers needs such depth classification.

BOOK CLASSIFICATION In the classification of the universe of macrothought embodied in books, CC gives only short class numbers. For example, J Agric. J.44 Agric in India. J.4 Agric disease. J3 Food crop. J38 Cereal. J381 Rice.

UNIVERSAL APPLICATION CC is universally applicable without any change both to books usually found in general, popular and school libraries, and to specialized books, pamphlets and articles to be documented and served to research workers in any field. It has no national bias, but provides for Local Variation to shorten class numbers.

CHRONOLOGY OF CC 1924-25: Provisional designing while in Great Britain. 1926-32: Application to the classification of about 60,000 books in the Madras University Library, introduction of open access, and observation of the helpfulness of the arrangement, in the course of reference service. 1933: Finalization and publication of 1st ed. 1929-36: Teaching of CC, and critical study. 1937: Formulation of theory and canons; publication of 1st ed. of *Prolegomena*. 1938-44: Comparative study and teaching of CC and DC; application to about 4,000 pamphlets. 1944: Formulation of the concepts of phase, facet, focus and the five fundamental categories. 1945-46: Application to the classification of about 100,000 varied materials in the Banaras Hindu University Library. 1947-55: Comparative study and teaching of CC and UDC;

further exploitation of the concept of the five fundamental categories; formulation of the concepts of round, level and zone; work on abstract classification and symbolic metalanguage for precision in the investigation of classificatory discipline. 1955: Embodiment of the findings in 2nd ed. of the *Prolegomena* and in 5th ed. of *Colon classification*, making it fit to face the problems of the depth classification needed in documentation work.

Chief main classes

2 Generalia. 1 Universe of knowledge. 2 Library science. A Natural sciences. β Mathematical sciences. B Mathematics. Γ Physical sciences. C Physics. D Engineering. E Chemistry. F Technology. G Biological sciences. H Geology. η Mining. I Botany. J Agriculture. K Zoology. λ Animal husbandry. L Medicine. M Useful Arts. μ Humanities and social sciences. Δ Mysticism and spiritual experience. ν Humanities. N Fine arts. O Literature. P Linguistics. Q Religion. R Philosophy. S Psychology. Σ Social sciences. T Education. U Geography. V History. W Political science. X Economics. Y Sociology. Z Law.

Chief books

1. *Colon classification*. 4th ed., 1952; 5th ed., 1957.
2. *Prolegomena to library classification*. 2nd ed., 1955.
3. *Library classification: Fundamentals and procedure*. 1944.
4. *Elements of library classification*, 1945. (German translation in preparation by Martin Mullerott, 1955.)
5. *Classification, coding and machinery for search*. 1950.
6. *Philosophy of library classification*. 1951.
7. *Classification and communication*. 1951.
8. *Public library provision and documentation problems*. 1951.
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10. Sivaraman, K. M. *Colon classification in its practical working*. 1943.
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S. R. R.

Colophon In the earliest printed books details of printer, date, author and title were usually given in a separate statement at the end of the text, a practice perhaps first used by Schoeffer in the 1457 Psalter. Not all these details are always present, and others may be added. A printer's device alone is not a colophon. Towards 1550 the details of authorship and the name of the printer were gradually transferred to a blank page preceding the text, i.e. the title-page.

Colophon date The date given in the colophon.

Colour printing Generally printing with the three primary colours in the correct propor-

tions, either from one plate or block as in Japanese woodblock prints or by photo-mechanical methods by which a series of plates are prepared by photography through colour filters giving the proportions mechanically when overprinted. Typical methods are the three-colour half-tone, the gravure and the lithographic processes.

Colour separation The process by which the colours of the original art work are analysed into the basic colours, in such a way that plates may be prepared to print in succession and to yield the correct colours when completed.

Colour under gilt Edges decorated by colouring before gilding; most frequently found in Bible binding.

Column Text written on papyrus rolls from left to right in a series of *selides* (Gr.), *paginae* (Lat.) two to three inches wide and between 25 and 45 lines to a unit. This unit is known as a column.

In modern usage, vertical sections of printed matter separated by a rule or a blank space as in newspapers.

Combination between library authorities
See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Commentary A collection of explanatory or critical notes on a work, either issued independently or accompanying the text, e.g. a commentary to the Bible (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Commercial libraries *Introductory* The commercial library is a special library, within the structure of a city's public library system, designed to serve the needs of the business community. In several cities it is combined with the technical library; the scope of this article, however, is limited to the aspects of commercial library work which constitute business, as distinct from technological, services.

The earliest provision of reference material expressly for the business public was made in the City of London; from 1873 onwards the Reading Room of the Guildhall Library 'afforded to the commercial public opportunities for consulting works suitable to their

requirements'; until re-named the Commercial Reference Room in 1947 this department provided anonymously a business reference service which has become one of the traditions of the City; its new title has enabled it to develop in that tradition.

The need for commercial libraries in other cities was brought about by the economic factors arising from the 1914-18 war. The first to be established was at Glasgow in 1916, followed soon by those at Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol and several others; at Leeds and Sheffield combined commercial and technical libraries were opened in 1920; most of the remaining commercial libraries outside London were established in the 1920s, and that at Edinburgh in 1932. The years since 1945 have seen the development of commercial services at Westminster and Holborn in London, and the opening of the new commercial and technical libraries at Newcastle upon Tyne and Kingston upon Hull.

The stock of the commercial library varies in size and emphasis according to the nature of trade and industry in the area it serves, but generally comprises:

(a) a comprehensive collection of British town, trade and professional directories in their latest editions;

(b) a selection of directories of overseas countries;

(c) British and overseas trade periodicals and their files;

(d) the principal British general and commercial newspapers and a selection of important overseas newspapers;

(e) current road, rail, air and shipping timetables;

(f) government publications, including statistical material, statutes, statutory instruments, reports;

(g) telegraphic codes;

(h) atlases, maps and gazetteers;

(i) legal and commercial textbooks, with particular emphasis on company law, accountancy, taxation, insurance, etc.;

(j) such ancillary material, special collections, etc., as may be necessary for its particular requirements.

The conditions which make a commercial library necessary in a city usually determine

not only the size and type of stock but all other aspects of the service. If business activity is centred at a distance from the main reference library, the commercial library will need to be established separately in the business quarter. The average commercial library requires, for its current stock, staff and about 350 readers a day, approximately 3,000 square feet of accommodation, plus storage space for files and reserve stock. Its staff establishment will depend very much upon (a) the hours of opening, and (b) the amount of its routine work that is done in centralized ordering and cataloguing departments; in commercial libraries which open for 12 hours daily and have centralized processing a staff of five or six is usual.

The work of the commercial library

The range of enquiries that are brought to a commercial library is as diverse as the whole field of business and industry. The following is a tabulation of some types of enquiry occurring most frequently.

(a) Directory enquiries, which can be classified under three heads:

1. 'Where is X?' The enquirer may need to find a firm's address; or to know where a street is in a city and at which end is a particular number; or to locate a town abroad and its nearest port or airfield. Such questions are readily answered from directories, with the help, where necessary of street plans, maps and gazetteers.
2. 'Who do or make Y?' The enquirer may require a list of farmers in Aberdeenshire, or lawyers in Milan who correspond in German; such requests are routine work to the well-equipped directory section. When the enquiry narrows to finding the maker of a particular trade-marked product or a specific pattern of article, directories of certain industries suffice, but reference will often be needed to files of the *Trade Marks Journal* and other relevant periodicals, to manufacturers' catalogues, and possibly to patent specifications.
3. 'What do Z do?' The third type of directory enquiry concerns the status and activities of firms and individuals. It

may simply mean looking in a telephone directory and finding that a firm are wholesale provision merchants; or it may involve reference to the financial handbooks and investors' services of several countries, to all directories likely to list directors, capital, etc., to trade and exhibition catalogues, annual reports and periodicals. Inevitably many such enquiries end in referring the enquirer to the Companies Registration Department of the Board of Trade.

Much of the technique of using directories is embodied in the notes and indices of *Current British directories*.¹

(b) Price enquiries

Enquiries for prices of commodities and articles draw heavily upon the periodical resources of the commercial library. Many can be obtained from the files of *The Public Ledger*, *The Builder*, *Chemical Trades Journal* and similar publications; outside their range, however, considerable search may be necessary, and in the case of manufactured articles trade catalogues are often the only source.

Stock and share quotations and exchange rates are specialized forms of price enquiry which can be answered very often from *The Times* or *Financial Times*. When these sources fail it is usually necessary to refer to the appropriate stock exchange lists or overseas financial newspapers.

(c) Statistics enquiries

Statistical material forms an essential item of the commercial library's stock, but many enquirers expect more than can possibly be available in print. It is therefore necessary for the staff not only to have a very clear idea of the figures available in obvious sources such as *Accounts of trade and navigation* and *Census of production*, but also of those appearing in trade periodicals; they must also be ready to refer the unsatisfied enquirer to outside sources, e.g. the service provided by the Customs & Excise Department. Finally it is an advantage if the staff realize sufficiently the difficulties of compiling and publishing statistics to know when an enquirer is asking for the impossible.

The whole field of available statistical data is being surveyed in *Sources and nature of the statistics of the United Kingdom*.²

(d) Law enquiries

Sufficient legal questions arise in the conduct of modern business for the well-equipped commercial library to need an extensive range of statutes, statutory instruments and the principal branches of law affecting business, especially company and industrial law and taxation. Of special importance are the laws and regulations of other countries relating to importation, foreign exchange and business operations; where the volume of demand does not merit obtaining the actual legal manuals of other countries, a great deal can be covered by such summaries as those contained in *The Lawyers' directory*.³

(e) Market research

This vital aspect of modern commercial activity involves nothing less than the combination of statistics and knowledge of the way of life of the nation or group who are the object of the research. Accordingly the market researcher can present the commercial library with the greatest conceivable range of problems. Some answers involve little more than reference to the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* or the *Statesman's year book*; others require prolonged search in periodicals, guide books, geographical works, directories; much information regarding a community's way of life can also be gained from a study of its newspapers.

The fruits of extensive market research appear in the *Special register information service* issued by the Board of Trade.⁴

(f) News

For many people in commerce printed news is too late; bankers, stockbrokers, underwriters and many others need to know of events before they reach the press. Nevertheless many business men can benefit from the provision of news, especially foreign news, in the commercial library. The need for reports of technical developments, appointments, new companies and legislation within the purview of each trade and profession is obvious, and such news is usually provided in the relevant weekly and monthly periodicals. Less obvious is the impact of events in general upon the work of many business men; an event, unrecorded in British newspapers, may so influence public opinion in Sweden or Brazil

that the next few weeks may be most advantageous for selling insurance or exporting farm machinery; such results, once the appropriate newspapers have been provided, depend largely upon the diligence and acumen of the reader; no aspect of commercial library work presents less tangible results; few, on the other hand, hold greater potentialities.

The commercial libraries of Great Britain

It would be pointless to list in full the services provided by each commercial library. The following notes indicate some of the specialities which have been developed in response to local needs:

At Birmingham a very extensive index to trade names is maintained, and the commercial library includes British and Commonwealth patent specifications. Bradford and Bristol both maintain special indexes of local firms and their activities. Glasgow commercial library is located in the former Royal Exchange; it has large stocks of British and overseas directories and of manufacturers catalogues, British and Commonwealth patent specifications and the Exchange Telegraph Company Service. At Liverpool the commercial library occupies a floor of a modern office building and has recently been refurbished; its stock includes shipping registers of the principal maritime countries and an extensive range of trade periodicals. In London, Guildhall and Westminster both have very large stocks of British and overseas directories; Guildhall also has Moody's British Company Service, the stock exchange yearbooks of most overseas countries, a directory loan service, and over 80 British and overseas newspapers. At Manchester there is a comprehensive stock of directories, British and overseas, a notable stock of maps, Moody's British Company Service and a heavily used information file; a notable development in the exploitation of these resources has been the installation of a teleprinter, Manchester being the first public library in the country to subscribe to the service. At Leeds, Sheffield and Kingston upon Hull the commercial libraries are combined with the technical and scientific libraries; notable services are the periodicals and patent specifications at all three, and the interloan service, long established at Sheffield and recent

at Hull, by which firms and other organizations in the cities, using the commercial library as a clearing house, pool their resources.

In addition to those mentioned above there are commercial libraries at Aberdeen, Cardiff, Dundee, Edinburgh; Holborn and Southwark in London; Newcastle upon Tyne, Southampton and Wolverhampton.

Special techniques

The exploitation of a commercial library's stock calls for special techniques in display, arrangement and assistance to users. Most business men who regularly use a commercial library consult the same items daily; as they are invariably in a hurry it is of vital importance to have the stock on open access and arranged in a readily comprehensible fashion. As an example of the latter can be cited the practice of shelving British local directories in alphabetical order of towns, rather than classified by Dewey—for every reader who needs directories of all the towns of one county there are a hundred who come in for Aberdeen or Luton or York.

Again, strip index panels or typewritten lists, placed as near as possible to the various elements of stock are found to be more comprehensible to the business user than a centralized battery of card catalogues; strip indexes have the additional advantage of being visible to a number of people simultaneously.

But however lucid the arrangement of the commercial library and however efficient its catalogues and other aids, the onus of exploiting its resources devolves always upon the staff. The basic stock of a general reference library will be familiar to most librarians, and that of a technological library to most technicians; but the commercial library brings together a stock of which much may be unfamiliar to most librarians and to most business men. The majority of enquiries in a commercial library therefore involve introducing the enquirer to a source of information that he has never seen before and may well never use again. Furthermore a very large proportion of business enquiries are for information not available in print and need to be referred, whenever possible, to other services. Such work calls for a high degree of

COMMERCIAL LIBRARIES

specialization, alertness for unexpected sources and, if waste of time is to be avoided, expert knowledge of what 'isn't knowledge.'

The Future

The economic situation of the country is familiar to everyone who reads a newspaper; the need to export grows daily more urgent, and the task of doing so more difficult; the problems of producing more goods of the right kind and selling them abroad at the right price are becoming ever more dependent upon reliable and efficient sources of technical and commercial information.

Commercial libraries are consequently going to have a part of increasing importance to play in the country's economic survival. In order to do so they must achieve two closely related objectives: to have the necessary material and trained staff available; and to make themselves known to the business community. An analysis of enquiries at one commercial library has shown that a very high percentage come to the public library as a last resort; it must be the aim of all commercial librarians to reverse this state of affairs wherever it exists; when that has been done it will be possible for commercial libraries to pull their full weight in the nation's economy.

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G.P.H.

Common subdivision See CLASSIFICATION.

Compact storage See SHELVING.

Compendium A work that presents in condensed form the principal points of a larger work; or, a work that treats a large subject briefly or in outline (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Compensation guarding Short stubbs bound in a volume to balance the space taken up by bulky inserts (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Compiler One who produces a single work by collecting and arranging written or printed material from various sources.

Compose To produce type-matter ready for printing either by hand or mechanically.

Composing stick An adjustable metal or wooden hand tray into which the compositor puts movable type letter by letter according to his copy, also inserting spaces. It is used with a composing or setting rule, a brass rule which keeps each line of loose type firm and separate from the previous line.

Composite author A designation applied to each of the several authors contributing parts of a composite work. Distinguished from a joint author by the fact that each composite author's contribution is a separate entity, readily distinguished.

Composite work An original work produced by the collaboration of two or more authors in which the contribution of each forms a separate and distinct part, although included within a planned whole (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Compositor One who sets type.

Compound name A name formed from two or more proper names, often connected by a hyphen, preposition or conjunction.

Amongst cataloguers the selection of the correct part of a compound name for entry has been a source of differing opinions. The difficulty, for the cataloguer, lies first in their

recognition and distinction from such names as Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and H. Rider Haggard; secondly, from the need of a single rule for entry under the last part of a compound name, which would obviate the difficulty of recognition and, possibly, simplify consultation of the catalogue through the enquirer's recognition of the single rule without exceptions. Such a rule, whilst simplifying matters in a particular library or in a particular country, would often offend against the accepted usage of an author or the custom proper to his native land.

The chief Western catalogue codes exemplify the nature of the problem by their differing rulings:

1. A.A.:25, A.L.A. 2nd ed.:38, Prussian Instructions:115-24 and Vatican:40 conform in general to entry under the first part of the compound name, save where the author's own usage or the custom of his country differs from this.
2. B.M.:11 prefers English and Dutch compound names entered under the last part; all others under the first.
3. Cutter:28 follows 'the usage of the author's fatherland, though if it is known that his practice differs from this usage it should be followed,' resulting in general rules that English names are entered under the last part; foreign names under the first part.

Compound subject-heading A subject-name used as a heading in a catalogue and consisting of more than one word, *viz.*:

- (a) A noun preceded by an adjective or an adjectival noun, *e.g.* Military law.
- (b) Two nouns connected by a preposition or conjunction, *e.g.* Conduct of Life.
- (c) A phrase or sentence.

Compulsory acquisition of land See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Concordance An alphabetical index of the principal words in the Bible or the works of an author, showing location in the text, generally giving context, and sometimes defining words (*A.L.A. Gloss., Book. Gloss.*).

Condensed type Thin elongated type useful for compressing matter into a small space.

Congress, Library of, classification See LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CLASSIFICATION.

Conjoint authorship See JOINT AUTHORSHIP.

Connotation classification The attribute or aggregate of attributes implied by a term, as distinguished from denotation.

Contact printing Any photographic printing process which involves direct contact between a negative or an original document, and sensitized paper. In documentary reproduction reflex and transmission copying are both forms of contact copying.

Contemporary binding A binding produced in the period of publication of a given book.

Contents note That part of the entry for a work in a catalogue or bibliography which lists the contents of the work. Contents are normally specified when a book contains several distinct items by the same author, or works by several authors, or works on several subjects, and often for a single work on a number of distinct subjects especially if the collective title does not sufficiently describe them.

Contents table See TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Continuation 1. A work published, and intended for use as, a supplement or carrying on of a work previously published. 2. A separately issued part continuing a book, serial or series.

Continuation card See EXTENSION CARD.

Continuous-form loan records Some research libraries, requiring multiple copies of a written record of book loans, use made-up packs of stationery in a continuous band supplied through a 'register.' (See also ALACRA LOAN RECORD.)

Gauntlett, M. D. 'The use of continuous-form stationery for library loan records.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1953, 5, 129-30.

Contour map A map that shows elevations and depressions of the earth's surface by means of contour lines (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Conventional title See UNIFORM TITLE.

COOPERATIVE CATALOGUING

Cooperative cataloguing The production of catalogue entries or printed book catalogues through the joint action of several independent libraries so that each library and usually other non-cooperating libraries as well, may share the benefits of such cataloguing. It has as its twin objects the avoiding of duplication of effort in the cooperating libraries by the sharing of work, and coverage of a wide field of publications by such cataloguing.

Cooperative cataloguing may operate at local level, as between two or more adjacent library systems, at regional level, as in the compilation of regional union catalogues, or at national level. National cooperative cataloguing is often combined with national centralized cataloguing so that the widest possible coverage of publications is represented by catalogue entries available to any library. The Library of Congress is the most eminent example of the latter, for it has made printed catalogue cards available, based on its own stock, since 1901, also exchanging catalogue entries with other large libraries to build up a national union catalogue, and making these additional entries available.

In Britain cooperative cataloguing has produced the union author catalogues of the regional library systems, used as location lists on which the national book interlending service largely rests. By the same means regional and national catalogues have been compiled since 1930 in the United States, Germany, U.S.S.R., Switzerland, Belgium, Austria, Denmark and other countries.

Copper plate 1. Of handwriting, a form of cursive script used by writing masters for models, and also formally as in bank notes. 2. Engraving. Drawing incised on copper by means of a burin.

Copy 1. Matter to be reproduced in print. 2. A single specimen of a printed work.

Copy edit To check a manuscript, before marking copy for printer, for house style, accuracy of fact, logical construction, possible libel, etc. (*Book, Gloss.*)

Copy fitting Adjusting copy to the space prepared, either by verbal changes or by suitable changes in type size.

Copy number (or letter) 1. A figure (or letter) used to distinguish copies of titles having the same call number or having no call number. 2. A number assigned to a particular copy of a book issued in a limited or a special edition (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Copy slip See PROCESS SLIP.

Copyholder 1. An assistant who reads copy to a proof reader. 2. A device attached to composing machines to hold copy.

Copyright Copyright is defined by the Copyright Act, 1911, as 'the sole right to produce or reproduce a work in any material form whatsoever, to perform, or in the case of a lecture, to deliver the work or any substantial part thereof in public; if the work is unpublished to publish the work or any substantial part thereof.'

There is no all embracing word to define the rights which the holder of a copyright has in his work or the work he has purchased, but the term reproduction is the nearest approach which can be made. This of course includes the right to translate, dramatize, record, broadcast or film any work.

Historically as its name implies the word copyright had a meaning limited to the reproduction of copies of the work, and its meaning has had to be enlarged as a result of the advances made by modern scientific discovery. It was and still is limited to preserve the rights of the individual author, using that word in its widest sense, in the particular way in which he has expressed his idea. It does not protect the idea itself but merely the mode of expression. Here then is the distinction between copyright and patent. While the reader of a book for instance is not prohibited from using the information he acquires from it, but only from disseminating that information, the user of a patented article is prevented for a term of years from making any use of the information he acquires from the use of the article.

Copyright is property belonging to the owner and can be disposed of in the same way as other personal property. If a copyright is infringed the infringement gives a right of action to the owner for damages against

the person who has made unauthorized use of the owner's sole rights. Since the Act of 1911 what constitutes an infringement has been clearly defined. The copyright in any work is deemed to be infringed by any person who, without the consent of the owner of the copyright, does anything, the sole right to do which is by this Act conferred on the owner of the copyright. Now this infringement can be achieved in a number of ways and it is necessary to examine the rights conferred upon the owner by the Act. The owner has the sole right to produce or reproduce the work, or any substantial part thereof in any material form whatsoever, the sole right to perform the work or any substantial part thereof in public, the sole right to publish an unpublished work, the sole right to produce or perform translations, the sole right to convert a dramatic work into a novel, to dramatize a non-dramatic work, to make contrivances whereby a work may be mechanically performed, and to authorize any of the foregoing Acts.

In this connection it is important to remember that since copyright is a proprietary right a defendant to an action for infringement cannot plead ignorance as a defence, nor is it any defence that the infringement has caused the owner of the copyright no damage, because copyright is a right of property and the plaintiff comes to court to have his property protected even though he has suffered no actual damage.

The final consideration to be applied to the question of copyright is the length of time for which the right exists as a right of property to the owner his executors, heirs and assigns. There has been a great deal of international dispute about the time that the right should exist but this was finally fixed by the 1911 Act at the life of the author and for a period of 50 years after his death. There are certain exceptions to this rule, namely photographs, which are protected for fifty years from the making of the original negative; Government publications 50 years from date of publication, works posthumously published are protected until published and for a term of 50 years thereafter.

Section three makes a further proviso which when the Section is complied with limits the

term of protection. At any time after the expiration of 25 years, or 30 years when that term applies, from the death of the author, copyright is not infringed if the person reproducing the work proves that he has given the prescribed notices in writing of his intention to produce the work and has paid to the owner royalties in respect of all copies of the work sold, calculated at 10 per cent on the price at which he publishes the work. The Board of Trade make all the necessary regulations under this Section.

The Act of 1911 abolished all necessity for the registration of copyright, in compliance with Article 4 of the Convention of Berne which provided that the exercise of rights conferred by the Convention were not to be subject to any formalities. By Section 15 of the Act of 1911, however, it is still necessary for the publisher of every book published in the United Kingdom within one month after the publication, to deliver at his own expense, a copy of the book to the Trustees of the British Museum. Certain types of publications are exempt from this requirement by Regulations (S.R. & O. 1935, No. 278) made under the British Museum Act, 1932. The publisher, on written demand being made within twelve months of publication, must also deliver within one month after the receipt of the demand, to some London depot, copies for the Bodleian Library, Oxford, the University Library, Cambridge, the National Library of Scotland, the Library of Trinity College, Dublin, and, subject to certain provisions in the Act, to the National Library of Wales. The National Library of Wales (Delivery of Books) Regulations, 1924, (S.R. & O. 1924, No. 400) lay down the classes of books which may not be demanded by that Library.

If a publisher fails to comply with this demand he is liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding £5 in addition to the cost of the book and the fine is to be paid to the trustees or authority of the library concerned. The term 'book' in this Section is defined by Section 15, Subsection 7 of the Act.

The copy to be delivered to the British Museum must be one of the best copies published but the copy for each of the other libraries is to be one of the copies of

COPYRIGHT DATE

which the largest number is printed for sale.

A.A.A.

Copyright date The date of copyright registration of a book, generally given in the book, as a rule on the verso of the title-page. The copyright date may be used in the catalogue entry in place of the publication date when the latter cannot be ascertained. In such cases, the copyright date is preceded by a superior 'c' and bracketed, e.g. [©1932].

Coranto 1. An early 17th century news sheet devoted to foreign news, appearing first in Holland and Germany and in 1620-21 in England, issued irregularly and printed as a half-sheet in folio. 2. After 1622 in England, a quarto newsbook, usually appearing weekly and consisting of three sheets (*A.L.A. Gloss.*)

Cords Strings to which sections are sewed in the process of binding a book by hand (see also *TAPES*).

Corner 1. The juncture of two edges of a book cover (usually the outer ones), or its covering. Various types are: square corners, round corners, library corners and mitred corners. 2. The leather or other material on the corners of book covers in half-binding and three-quarter binding styles.

Corner mark Information added to the upper right-hand corner of a catalogue card to indicate language, editor, translator, etc., to enable speedy perusal of a large number of cards under the same heading.

Corporate authorship A work is said to be of corporate authorship when the responsibility for its content, expression and opinions rests with a society, institution, government or other corporate body and not with a personal author.

The principle of corporate authorship has long been established in the English-speaking countries, being codified by Panizzi in England and Jewett and Cutter in the United States in the mid-19th century. Corporate entry therefore occurs frequently in British and American catalogues, entry being made either under the first word (not an article) of the name of the corporate body or, in the case

of governmental and judicial bodies and institutions, under the place of situation.

German libraries and most of those in surrounding countries do not accept the principle of corporate authorship. Following the practice of Dziatzko's *Instruktion für die ordnung der titel im alphabetischen zettelkatalog der königl. und Universitätsbibliothek zu Breslau* (1886) and the Prussian governments *Instruktionen für die alphabetischen Kataloge der preussischen bibliotheken* (1st ed., 1899; 2nd ed., 1908) such works are catalogued under the name of a personal author if one appears on the title-page. If no individual is named they are treated as anonymous and entered under the first noun in the title.

Corporate entry Entry under the names of governmental or legislature bodies, societies, institutions, firms and other bodies of persons, for works published in their name or by their authority.

Corporate name The official title by which a corporate body is known.

Correctoria Medieval text forms of the Latin Vulgate used by copyists to secure copies of the original text (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Correlation of properties Given a fundamental characteristic of classification, from the possession of that quality other qualities may be inferred as necessarily present in a species. That inference is correlation of properties.

Corrigenda See *ERRATUM LIST*.

Cotgreave, Alfred (1849-1911) Librarian successively of Wednesbury, Richmond, Wandsworth, the Guille-Allès Library in Guernsey, and of West Ham, invented in 1877 a new type of 'indicator' consisting of small horizontal shelves each containing a minute metal drawer or tray, holding a miniature ledger in which to enter the borrower's name and place his ticket, the call number being printed on the ends on the drawer, with red at one end denoting 'out' and blue at the other 'in.' This system was devised to hinder careless assistants from inserting readers' tickets in the wrong indicator slots. Cotgreave invented numerous other mechanical devices for use in libraries, and was energetic in their commercial exploitation, but his name was inevitably

linked chiefly with his indicator. In the worst phases of the campaign organized in the late 1890's by a small and determined group against 'open access,' Cotgreave took his full part: open denunciation and covert misrepresentation, signed contributions and anonymous broadsides came from no other interested party so copiously. Cotgreave was responsible also for some bibliographic work: his *Contents-subject index to general and periodical literature*, 1900, prepared for and published by the West Ham library committee, at its best resembles Poole, being when most original shoddy and unreliable. Perhaps the most useful historically of his works is the *Views and memoranda of public libraries*, 1901, which as a directory competed with Greenwood's *Library year book*. (Recent notes on the Cotgreave library and office indicators and other aids . . ., 1897, and *A review of certain portions of Greenwood's Library Yearbook for 1897* are representative anonymous documents.)

G.J.

Cottage style (design) A characteristic design developed by Samuel Mearne, binder to King Charles II in which the covers were ornamented to resemble cottage gables.

Counter The space enclosed within the letter, i.e. the part which appears white when printed.

Countermark A secondary watermark found mainly in paper of the 18th century. Later examples generally give initials of maker, place and date. The position is usually the centre or lower centre of the half-sheet opposite the main mark. Frequently a date mark appears by the margin.

Countersunk In bookbinding, a depression pressed or stamped to receive an inlay, or the like.

County libraries A brief article on County Libraries in Great Britain can attempt only to outline the general pattern of development since progress has been unequal not only between one country and another, but between counties in the same country. Consequently there are still a number who have not progressed beyond the box of books stage general up to the end of the 1920's, while others have

yet to consider the provision of mobile libraries which have been such a feature of the post-war years.

The acts under which county councils became library authorities are: England and Wales Public Libraries Act, 1919; Scotland, Education (Scotland) Act, 1918 (now 1946); Northern Ireland, Public Libraries Act (Northern Ireland) 1924 and Eire, Local Government Act, 1925. It is interesting to note the following differences in these and subsequent acts which have affected the County Library services in the five countries. In England and Wales library powers other than the raising of a rate or the borrowing of money are referred to the Education Committee; in Scotland, the rate being levied as part of the education rate on the whole country, the library service is in fact grant aided, and as it is levied on independent library areas it has resulted in double rating on these areas; in Northern Ireland where there was a rate limitation until 1946, County Councils are obliged to appoint a County Library Committee consisting of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the County Council, representatives of the Rural Districts, Urban Districts and towns for which the Council is the library authority and members of the County Council; in Eire a Public Libraries Act of 1947 has set up a Library Council whose duties include the co-ordination of library services and assistance to library authorities.

Before, however, any act was passed to enable Local Authorities to provide such services, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust (founded in 1913) instigated a 'Report on Library Provision and Policy' by Professor W. S. Adams which was presented to the Trustees in 1915. The statistics of this report which referred to the year 1914 revealed that 38 per cent of the population of England, 54 per cent of the population of Wales, 50 per cent of the population of Scotland and 72 per cent of the population of Ireland lived outside any existing library authority, and recommendations were made that experimental library schemes should be put into operation which would prepare the way for a national scheme of county rate supported libraries. These schemes were to operate largely

COUNTY LIBRARIES

through the assistance of voluntary helpers and were to be based on the idea of circulating bookstocks. During the years 1915-19 the C.U.K.T. spent £132,000 on experimental schemes, three of which are of special interest since they illustrate the varying ideas which the Trust had in mind. Firstly, the north of Scotland scheme (Orkneys, Shetland and Lewis) based on the existing Coats Libraries; secondly, the Workop scheme based on an existing Public Library co-operating with surrounding Parish Councils; and thirdly the Staffordshire County scheme placed under the control of the Stafford Education Committee, confined to the rural areas and organized through the schools by schoolmasters. As a result of these experiments the Workop scheme was wound up in 1918 and for good or ill the Staffordshire scheme became the prototype for the County Library movement after the passing of the Scottish Education Act of 1918 and the Public Libraries Act of 1919.

Most County Councils were not slow to adopt the acts—Staffordshire, Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, Wiltshire, Buckinghamshire, Somerset, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Cardiganshire, Montgomeryshire, Caernarvonshire, Brecon, Radnor and Dorset already had services sponsored by the Trust—but there is little doubt that many authorities were persuaded to do so by the bait of grants from the C.U.K.T. and statements such as the following made by Colonel Mitchell at the 1920 conference, 'Now as far as the Trust's experiments go—so far as the schemes which we are free to discuss—the cost of no single schemes so far has reached the equivalent of $\frac{1}{4}$ d. in the £1, and the majority do not reach $\frac{1}{4}$ d. or even one-sixth of a penny.' By 1956 the estimated rate poundage in Montgomeryshire was 13.1d. and in Durham 8.7d., but nevertheless the County Library movement is still suffering from that early assumption that the County Library compared with the Municipal Library was a cheaper and inferior service.

The second assumption on which County Libraries started was that it would be a purely rural service and the movement in its early days was in fact known until 1924 as the 'Rural Library Service.' Even as late as 1928 the C.U.K.T. reports that County Councils had

excluded nearly 1,400,000 people within their administrative counties from the County Library areas, and notes that in Staffordshire, the earliest county to have a library service, a population of 185,000 was not within the library area. Larger numbers still were outside the county services of Northumberland and Glamorganshire, the figures for these being 242,000 and 206,000 respectively. Yet as early as 1924 a paper entitled 'The County Library and its populous areas' had been given by Mr. W. Claud Hamilton at the second conference held by the Trust, and in 1931, the Library Association Record published Mr. J. D. Cowley's report on 'Branch Library buildings.' Except for those counties which are in fact purely rural, probably the least satisfactory progress in any county has been in the provision of adequate branch libraries. This has been partly the result of restrictions on building during the war and post-war conditions but it is also due to too late an appreciation by County Councils of the need of adequate library services in their more urban areas. At a conference in 1935, Mr. E. Salter Davies, the convenor, remarked 'I cannot help feeling that there must be a number of counties that really do not know what a county library service means, and that they are still proceeding with the old idea that the county library service is merely a headquarters for sending out boxes of books. It really is time we knew better than that' . . . There are unfortunately still many counties, 21 years later, to which these remarks are still applicable.

County Councils were not, however, the only authorities to blame in this matter. In order to achieve more adequate development of libraries in urban areas the device of differential rating was resorted to in some English counties, but numbers of Urban District Councils were not sufficiently interested in the library service in their areas to agree to an additional rate to provide a service more adequate than that covered by the flat county rate (usually the cost of loan charges, rent, salaries, etc.). Differential rating was first levied on Kenilworth by Warwickshire in 1922. It was a slow and cumbersome device and since the late 1930's has been falling out of favour as in addition to the financial complications it operated against the planning

of the County Library service as a single unit, and made interavailability and co-ordination of services difficult.

The Society of County Treasurers returns for County Libraries for the year 1954-55 gives the total number of full-time Branch Libraries in English and Welsh counties as 423 and the total of part-time Branches as 884. It is, however, probable that less than one-quarter of these are in adequate buildings specially erected as libraries.

With the realization that urban areas required Branch Libraries not inferior to the services provided in longer established Municipal Libraries, the gap in expenditure on the two services slowly began to decrease and as the Report of the Public Libraries Committee of the Board of Education stated in 1927, 'The expenditure in County Libraries is likely to approximate more closely to that in Urban Libraries as the County Libraries grow older and extend more and more their provision in the form of stationary libraries.' By 1954-55 the average expenditure per head of population in counties in England, Scotland and Northern Ireland was almost 4s. 0d. while in Municipal Libraries the comparative figure was 5s. 9d.

Once Branch Libraries began to be provided, the next step was the co-ordination of services within individual counties and the development of regionalization. The first experiment of this kind was in the Garstang region of Lancashire, but the earliest and most completely regionalized county was Derbyshire where development on these lines was not obstructed by the existence of a large number of small independent libraries within the administrative county. This interlocking of services within a region often covering a number of separate urban districts and large rural areas has brought a greater part of the whole of the library's resources closer to the reader than could have been done without such devolution from the central Headquarters except in the smaller counties. Regionalization appears so far to be confined to English County Libraries and the County Libraries Section in its *Statistical and policy survey of the County Libraries of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 1951*, reports that ten counties are fully or partly region-

alized, three others have accepted this policy in principle, while in others the matter is under active consideration. Satisfactory regionalization is, however, difficult if not impossible in a number of counties, Lancashire being one of the most extreme cases. In the geographical county there are 18 county boroughs dividing up the geographical county and within the administrative county itself 39 independent library areas. It is estimated that since County Councils became library authorities, so independent library areas have relinquished their powers to County Councils and that County Councils have rescinded their powers in 15 areas.

The growth of regionalization has given additional impetus to the development of mobile library services since the regional Headquarters library provides a convenient base from which a mobile library can operate. Many counties do, however, operate mobile services without regional libraries and at least one regionalized county does not base its mobile service on the regional branch library. The honour of first taking books on wheels to readers goes to Perthshire where a library van has been operating since 1920. By the end of March, 1955, a total of 119 vehicles were owned by English and Welsh counties. Not all of these are, however, mobile libraries giving a direct issue service to the reader since the number includes a certain number of vans for transport use only, and the exhibition vans such as are used in Kent and some other counties. These latter take a display of books to villages from which the local librarian and interested readers may select the collection of books to be left in the village library. The direct service to the reader provided by the mobile library is in some parts of Great Britain impracticable and the latest and most interesting experiment in supplying the isolated homestead is that reported from Orkney where an experimental direct Family Book Service has been put into operation in the islands of North Ronaldsay and Sanday.

This willingness to experiment and a feeling of pioneering in a new field of library work still continues to invigorate the work done in most counties. The satisfaction of the readers' needs for books and information is the purpose of all libraries, but different

COUNTY LIBRARIES

methods are required if the reader lives 60 or 70 miles from the Headquarters library than if he resides within the confines of a large city and can easily visit the central library. The Students' Library, therefore, has always been a distinguishing feature of County Library work—dealing as it does with the large number of requests for books from individual isolated readers, from readers using the limited resources of the village centre and from branch and mobile libraries, and the postal service which is its corollary has been the County Library's means of supplying the borrower with more specialist reading. County Libraries have never tended therefore to hoard their reference books and have been prepared to send them to the reader, rather than expect the reader to come to the books. This characteristic of sending books out is also seen in the county library's willingness to supply sets of plays and books for classes for long periods, though this latter characteristic can also be partly attributed to the closer relation of the County Library with the Education Department. This close link with the Education Department in the early days of the movement had the unfortunate effect in a number of counties of creating a bookstock largely for the child reader to the neglect of the adult. This criticism, however, can no longer be made in spite of the considerable development of school library services undertaken by counties since the last Education Acts. There is little doubt, however, that County Libraries would fare better if they were no longer part of the Education Department. This possibility was already foreseen by the Public Libraries Committee in 1927 and the position since then has grown more serious. The lower status of County Library Committees and their officers is not only reflected in the lower salaries offered to County Library staffs but also in difficulties of approach to other committees of the County Council such as the Finance Committee and Establishment Committee which are often tortuous and at second hand. Consequently, the problems of the library service are frequently misunderstood if not neglected. Certainly the best incentive to recruitment of County Library staff would now be the creation of a separate library department.

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F.E.C.

Court hand A medieval formal cursive hand used in official records, charters, etc., from which it was also called charter hand.

Cover paper A generic term for strong paper in various finishes and colour suitable for brochure covers.

Cover title 1. The title printed on the original covers of a book or lettered on the publisher's binding, as distinguished from the title lettered on the back of a particular copy of the book by the binder. 2. As restricted for use in collation, the title printed on the paper cover of a work issued without a title-page. The paper cover is usually of different colour and weight from the paper used for the text (*A.A. Code, A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Covers bound in Original paper covers included, or to be included, in a later binding.

Crash 1. Coarse, open-weave, cotton material usually used in edition binding for reinforcing spines of books. Also called Mull.

Crayon drawing A drawing made with a soft black crayon giving broad effects. Especially suitable for use with lithography.

Crayon engraving A method of etching in which the broken lines of crayon drawings are imitated by roulettes and other tools as well as the use of the needle. Also called Chalk engraving.

Credit line A statement giving the name of a photographer, artist, author, agency or publication responsible for the picture, photograph, article or quotation which is being used (*Book Gloss.*).

Crestadoro, Andrea, 1808-79, third chief librarian of Manchester, 1863-79, had previously advocated in his anonymous *The Art of making catalogues of libraries*, 1856, a catalogue consisting of detailed principal entries—needing 'no particular arrangement'—supplemented by an index 'essentially alphabetical in its arrangement' of names and subjects. The catalogue of the Manchester Reference Library which he issued in 1864,

however, had both its principal and its index entries in alphabetical order, and only the two volumes covering additions from 1864 to 1879 fully conformed with Crestadoro's earlier theory. (Boase, *Modern English bibliography*, Vol. 1.)

G.J.

Critical annotation See EVALUATION.

Cropped 1. Work that has been cut down too much, sometimes impairing the text. 2. A photograph of which a part of the top, bottom or sides is omitted from its reproduction, in order to bring it into proper proportions for the space it is to occupy (*A.L.A. Gloss., Libr. Gloss.*).

Cross A mark in proof correcting to indicate a faulty letter or part of the printing surface which needs adjustment.

Cross division See CLASSIFICATION.

Cross head A short heading placed in the centre of a line of type to divide the sections of the work.

Cross line See LAID PAPER.

Cross reference A direction in a catalogue, from one of several headings under which an entry might be sought, to the heading adopted, or to draw the attention to other headings under which related material is entered, e.g.:

1. Ornithology *see* Birds.
2. Legends *see also* Mythology, Fables, Folklore.

Crown Standard size of printing paper, 15 × 20 in. Double crown measures 20 × 30 in., and Crown Folio, Quarto and Octavo are one-half, one-quarter and one-eighth respectively.

Crushed levant A large-grained levant (goatskin) leather cover with a smooth, polished surface, the result of having the natural grain crushed down.

Cryptography Writing in cypher.

Cryptonymous book One in which the name of the author is concealed under an anagram or similar device.

CUBOOK

Cubook A unit for measuring stack capacity, specifically the volume of space required to shelve the average size book (average taking into account books of varying height and thickness) and allowing for vacant space 10 per cent of each shelf length. A cubook is a hundredth part of a standard section 3 ft wide and 7½ ft high (7 shelves).

Cumdach An Irish term for a box, often elaborately decorated, for holding a bound or unbound medieval manuscript, also known as 'book box' and 'book shrine' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Cum licentia Having the right to print by authority, either secular or ecclesiastical. The phrase appears in 16th and 17th century books. Also *cum licentia* (or *privilegio*), *nihil obstat*, *imprimatur* (*Book. Gloss.*).

Cumulated volume The volume of an index, catalogue or bibliography in which, at the end of a period of time, is assembled a combined sequence of entries which have appeared in earlier issues during that period.

Cumulative index An index in periodical form that at stated intervals combines new items and items in one or more earlier issues to form a new unified list, or an index to any periodical that combines new entries with those of an earlier index (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Curiosa Books unusual in subject or treatment. The term is used sometimes for pornographic books (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Cursive A relatively free form of Humanistic handwriting often used in correspondence from which Italic types were derived. Modern handwriting is a degenerate form of the joined varieties of these scripts, which all had national characteristics.

Curves Curved marks () used in cataloguing to enclose inserted explanatory or qualifying words or phrases, and to distinguish particular items, e.g. a series note, or the reference section of an analytical entry. Often called parentheses. To be distinguished from brackets (*q.v.*).

Cut edges The edges of a book, when the head, tail and fore-edge have been cut smooth and solid.

Cut flush Of a bound volume, having the cover trimmed after binding, so that its edges are even with the edges of the leaves.

Cut-in heading A heading at the side of the page in a rectangular space formed by moving some of the text.

Cut-in index See THUMB INDEX.

Cut-in letter A large letter at the beginning of the chapter, displacing some text.

Cut-in note A note at the side of the page in a rectangular space displacing some of the text, also called a cut-in side note, let-in note and in-cut note.

Cut line Text appearing below a plate often called 'caption.'

Cut-out half-tone A half-tone block in which all the tint dots have been removed from the highlight areas, which then appear white.

Cuts A generic term, loosely used of all kinds of illustration blocks.

Cutter author marks A rather elaborate method to ensure the arrangement of books, etc., in alphabetical order. To the first two and sometimes, as in the case of letter S, three letters of the author's name are added numbers. These numbers can be added to decimally to facilitate the insertion of fresh names at any point.

Miss Kate E. Sanborn 'altered and fitted with three figures' the third edition of the author marks in 1899, producing a substantially new work usually known as the *Cutter-Sanborn tables*.

Cutter, Charles Ammi (classification) See EXPANSIVE CLASSIFICATION.

Cutter-Sanborn tables See CUTTER AUTHOR MARKS.

Cutting-proof A few rough edges left on a trimmed volume to show that it has not been cut down excessively.

Cylinder press A press in which a flat bed or surface of type is passed alternately under inking rollers and a rotating cylinder presses against the moving type.

D

d.c. Double column; Double Crown (paper 20 × 30 ins). Double Cap (double foolscap size) printing, 17 × 27 in.

Dagger (†) The second reference mark coming after the asterisk.

Dandy roll A wire-gauze cylinder pressed on the still moist waterleaf just previous to the drying rollers. The wire of the dandy roll gives an impress designed to resemble laid or wove paper, and watermarks may be woven on to the roller similarly to those on the moulds in hand-made paper.

Daniel Press Established at Frome in 1846 by the Rev. C. H. O. Daniel. Revived by him at Oxford in 1874, and used sporadically until his death in 1919 for the private publication of family verses, small pamphlets and books. In 1877 he discovered and brought back into use the punches, matrices and types which had been introduced to the University Press by Fell in 1667-74.

Date See COPYRIGHT DATE; DEDICATION DATE; IMPRINT DATE; INTRODUCTION DATE; PREFACE DATE; PUBLICATION DATE.

De luxe edition See 'EXTRA' BINDINGS.

De Vinne A fount of type named after its designer, Theodore de Vinne.

Dead matter Type awaiting distribution.

Decalcomania Transfer or design printed on special paper to a permanent base, e.g. pottery.

Decimal Classification Generally any classification which uses numbers arranged decimally for its notation. One adopts the convention that all numbers follow the decimal point and thus 'O' on the left-hand side of a symbol is significant.

Specifically the Decimal Classification of Melvil[le] [Louis Kossuth] Dewey. A point is introduced after the third numeral to split up the number. Each number has a minimum of

3 numerals using an 'O' on the right-hand side if necessary.

History The scheme was developed in 1873 at Amherst College, Mass., U.S.A., in the college library. It was influenced by the study of various schemes, the most important of which was one (1870) by W. T. Harris of St. Louis, who in turn was strongly influenced by Bacon's *Chart of Human Learning*. Harris inverted Bacon's sequence and Dewey followed this order closely. He published the 42 page first edition of his scheme in 1876, a slim volume, indeed, when compared with the 1,647 pages of the 14th ed., 1942.

The Decimal Classification became popular very rapidly and is used extensively in libraries all over the world. Two factors were at work here; the growth of libraries was phenomenal both in number and size as the 20th century came in and a vast new public was attracted to them; Dewey's scheme was easily understood and remembered and allowed for the relative location of books instead of fixing places on particular shelves. The progressive subordination shown by the decimal notation and the ease of insertion of new topics were revolutionary ideas. The decimal principle can be applied to letters or any other notational scale. The concept is the important factor.

After 1876, editions followed rapidly in 1885, 1888, 1891, 1894, 1898, 1911, 1913, 1915, 1919, 1922, 1927, 1932 and 1942. Always expanding and inserting new topics, the editors did not alter the main classes of the scheme, or the classification of many topics, as it was the purpose of Dewey to leave the framework of the scheme unaltered so that libraries need not reclassify—reclassification being an expensive and arduous task.

However, expansion without reallocation of classes resulted in the scheme becoming antiquated in outlook and badly proportioned in detail, so that in 1951 the 15th Standard Edition, described below, was published.

Dewey founded the Lake Placid Club and from 1922 the Lake Placid Club Education

DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION

Foundation had editorial responsibility. There were always assistant editors, but Dewey continued to take an interest in his classification until his death on December 26th, 1931.

In April, 1930, the Library of Congress began to add Dewey numbers to their printed catalogue cards. It was a logical and eventual step that the 1951 Standard Edition of the D.C. should be compiled within the Library of Congress itself, although still published from Lake Placid.

Principles and Outline The main classes of the D.C. are as follows:

CLASSES

(With a note of divisions that some readers may expect to find elsewhere.)

- 000 General works.
(Including bibliography, library economy, museums, journalism.)
- 100 Philosophy.
(Including psychology.)
- 200 Religion.
- 300 Social sciences.
(Including statistics and customs.)
- 400 Philology.
- 500 Pure science.
- 600 Useful arts.
(Including medicine, agriculture, business and industry.)
- 700 Fine arts. Recreations.
(Including architecture, photography and music.)
- 800 Literature.
- 900 History.
(Including geography and biography.)

Dewey claims that 'everywhere philosophic theory and accuracy have yielded to practical usefulness . . .' and, although many classes are badly arranged according to modern standards, there has been a 'practical usefulness' over almost 80 years.

Each subject is capable of subdivision into nine subsidiary subjects all of which are theoretically co-equal. Very few subjects divide into nine parts naturally; distortion occurs, some divisions are overloaded and the last division '9' is often given over to 'other topics.' For no apparent reason many allied subjects (e.g. philology and literature) and even parts of a subject (e.g. psychology) are separated.

The *Relative Index* is an important feature of the scheme and contains 43,000 entries (13th and 14th editions).

Dewey's insistence on the use of reformed spelling throughout makes parts of the introduction and schedules difficult to read until one becomes 'uized' to it.

AUXILIARY TABLES. As well as the minutely divided schedules tables are provided, numbers from which may be added to the subject number to define it further. These are, in the 14th edition:

TABLE 1—GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS

A list of subjects which may be divided geographically by adding the geographical numbers from class 900, i.e. those numbers from classes 930-999 (omitting the initial 9) which indicate locality. Other topics not mentioned may usually be subdivided by place by putting '09' in front of the geographical number.

TABLE 2—UNIFORM SUBDIVISIONS

These are a much-extended form of the original nine common subdivisions which are:

- 01 Theory, philosophy, etc.
- 02 Outlines, manuals, etc.
- 03 Dictionaries or cyclopaedias.
- 04 Essays, etc.
- 05 Periodicals, etc.
- 06 Societies, etc.
- 07 Education, study, teaching, etc.
- 08 Collected works, etc.
- 09 History.

They may be added to the number for any subject under conditions specified in the introductory paragraphs.

Normally, *form divisions* are preceded by a cipher '0,' *viewpoints* by '00,' and *miscellaneous aspects* by '000.'

The Universal Decimal Classification (*q.v.*) took the idea of its auxiliary tables from Dewey's subdivisions; the 14th ed. of the D.C. has borrowed some of the U.D.C.'s concepts (but not notation) in expanding its Table 2.

TABLE 3—LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

A list of languages and literatures (with notation) which may be subdivided like 420, English.

TABLE 4—PHILOLOGICAL DIVISIONS

A list of philological terms (with notation) which can be added to the languages in Table 3, e.g.

420 is English philology.

425.2 is English syntax.

Table 3 number for French is 44.

Table 4 number for Syntax is 52.

French syntax is 445.2.

This example shows the mnemonic method of building up numbers in the D.C. Main subject numbers may also be combined as instructed in the schedules from time to time.

MISCELLANEOUS

Biscoe time and Olin book number schemes and special author tables appeared in the 11th, 12th and 13th editions, but are seldom used to-day.

An alternative scheme for psychology, which is split at 130 and 150, was introduced in the 13th ed. at 159.9. It has not been revised.

An alternative scheme for systematic and taxonomic botany (582-589) abridged from the U.D.C. is available in the 14th ed.

The decimal classification lends itself admirably to coding on punched cards.

NOTE ON THE STANDARD (15th) EDITION, 1951.

This was published largely as the result of criticism of the complexity, long notation and bad apportionment of the classes of previous editions.

The typography, layout and explanations are much improved. Reduction of the length of notation has necessitated the use of broad headings rather than minute classes and it would appear to be of little use to any but small libraries, preferably those using dictionary catalogues.

The index was reduced so drastically that a much amplified one had to be published shortly after. There is some useful revision and some new subjects.

The *British National Bibliography*, which uses the 14th ed. as the basis of its classified arrangement, applies the 15th ed. numbers where they may be employed usefully.

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Deck The area occupied by one level of a bookstack, including ranges, aisles, elevators and necessary working facilities. Carrels are not included in computing this area.

Deckle edge The feathery rough edges of hand-made paper caused by the wet pulp flowing around the edges of the frame (deckle) which is used to press the pulp on to the mould. A similar effect is often induced in machine-made paper by special rubber deckle straps at the edge of the wire mesh, or by water jets. The appearance of a deckle edge in a book is esteemed by collectors as showing the book is in its original state uncut by the binder.

Decorated covers Bindings in which the cover has an illustration, design or special lettering.

Dedication A statement in a book, by the author, acknowledging indebtedness or paying respect to another person. The dedication is normally brief and precedes the preface.

Dedication date The date given at the beginning or end of a dedication.

Deep etching In photo-engraving, additional etching made necessary to secure the proper printing depth especially when matt or poor quality paper is used. An alternative process to routing, which is more appropriate to line negatives.

Defamatory publications See LIBELLOUS PUBLICATIONS.

Definitive edition An edition of a work, or of the works of an author, presumably final as to text and, sometimes, as to annotations, commentary, etc. (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Delayed discharge Book issue methods which permit the borrower to take further books without waiting for the record of previous loans to be cancelled or discharged.

Delegation of powers See COMMITTEES.

Delete In proof correction, deletions are marked by striking out the fault in the text and by writing the Greek δ and the correct word in the margin.

Demco self-charging system A simplified version of the Newark charging system which dispenses with entries on the readers' tickets. The borrower enters his own ticket number on the next line of the book card and the assistant checks this entry and stamps the date label.

'The Demco self-charging system.' *Libr. J.*, 1931, 56, 305-6.

Demy A standard size of paper $17\frac{1}{2} \times 22\frac{1}{2}$ in. (printing). Drawing and writing paper, $15\frac{1}{2} \times 20$ in. (also called small demy).

Denotation (classification) 'The aggregate of objects of which a word may be predicated,' [O.E.D.] as distinguished from connotation.

Departmental catalogue A catalogue containing entries for books in one department only of a library.

Derôme A French family in the 18th century which added several illustrious names to the art of binding of that period. The most famous of the family was Nicolas Derôme, known as Derôme le jeune (1731-88).

In hand binding, a style with ornaments of a leafy character, with a rather solid face, though lightly shaded by the graver. It is best exemplified in borders. The ornaments are often styled Renaissance, being an entire change from the Gascon style.

Descender 1. That part of a lower case letter which descends below the body of the letter.

2. Used of the whole letter which has a descender.

Descriptive cataloguing That part of the cataloguing process concerned with the identification and description of a book, as distinct from the determining of its subject, its subject headings or subject indexing.

Destination slips Paper slips inserted into newly purchased books in the book-order or cataloguing department. Part of the slip is left projecting and by its colour and/or marking indicates the library and department to which the book is allocated.

Detroit self-charging system A simplified form of the Newark charging system which eliminates certain steps and requires the borrower to enter his ticket number on the book card.

The Staff, Ann Arbor P.L., Michigan. 'Self charging system satisfactory.' *Libr. J.*, 1931, 56, 306-8.

Device See PRINTER'S OR PUBLISHER'S DEVICE.

Dewey, Melvil (Decimal Classification) See DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION.

Diamond The old name of a size of type, about $4\frac{1}{2}$ point.

Diaper A small repeating pattern of binding ornament in geometrical form, usually a diamond or a lozenge.

Diapositive stencils Yellow or green stencils used in offset lithographic duplicating processes. When typed, a print is made from the stencil on to a sensitized plate, the colour of the stencil preventing light rays from passing through except where the stencil is cut by the typewriter.

Diazo process A transmission method of photocopying exploiting the property of certain dyes of the Diazo group which are sensitive to light. Also known as the dyeline process. Diazo paper being much cheaper than silver halide papers is often used for taking copies from an 'autopositive' master. In libraries the process may be used for taking copies of a master catalogue entry typed on a thin translucent paper. The first Diazo process was patented in 1890 by Arthur Green, but the

properties of Diazo compounds and their application to photography were known in 1885. The Diazo process has been widely used in architectural and engineering offices for plan copying. Diazo paper is a slow paper which can be handled in ordinary lighting, and the method of developing—by exposing the print to ammonia gas or through ammonia solution—is simple.

'Progress in reflex copying: Diazo and after.'

Libr. Ass. Rec., 1953, 55, 10-13.

'Principles and possibilities of Diazo copying processes.' *J. Document.*, 1949, 5, 1-11.

'Translucent stationery and the Diazo method.'

O. & M. Bull., 1953, 8, 39-44.

Dichotomy See BI-FURCATE CLASSIFICATION.

Dickman charging system An American device, also adopted by some British libraries, to record book loans by machine. An ordinary book card is used but the reader's ticket has an embossed number. The ticket and card are inserted in the machine to stamp the reader's ticket number on the book card and record the loan.

Lehman, G. I. 'The Dickman bookcharging system.' *Libr. J.*, 1931, 56, 302-4.

Dictionary catalogue A catalogue of entries under authors, editors, translators, etc., title, subjects, forms and series which, together with the necessary references, are arranged in one general alphabetical sequence. It may be regarded as consisting of an author catalogue, a title catalogue, an alphabetical subject catalogue and a form catalogue consolidated in one alphabetical file.

A later development than the classified catalogue, in the 19th century this form achieved a rapid acceptance particularly in the libraries of the United States, where in 1876 Charles Ammi Cutter published the first edition of his *Rules for a dictionary catalogue*. This publication was the first to codify the principles of dictionary catalogue construction and offer rules for the making of every kind of entry, heading and reference necessary. These rules still form the basic code although later codes, notably the Vatican Library's *Rules for the catalogue of printed books* (1st ed., 1930; 2nd ed., 1939) and S. R. Ranganathan's *Dictionary*

catalogue code (1945) have modified certain rulings and methods.

No indexes are necessary to this catalogue since all kinds of entry are included in a single sequence, allowing direct consultation under any search factor relating to the required book. Ease of consultation is assured by the use of alphabetical arrangement, though the sub-arrangement under a subject heading or an author's name may vary from the strictly alphabetical.

The success of the dictionary catalogue in displaying a subject approach to the books catalogued depends largely on the care with which the subject headings (i.e. the terms expressing the subjects of the books catalogued, under which the relevant subject entries are filed) are chosen. The principle of specific entry is paramount here; that is, a book on Leica cameras would be entered LEICA CAMERAS, not under CAMERAS or PHOTOGRAPHY. The use of this principle in an alphabetical catalogue results often in the separation of entries for allied and related subjects, according to the initial letters of their names. The dictionary catalogue therefore incorporates a system of subject references which direct attention to the subject relationships, and this syndetic apparatus is to some extent a substitute for the systematic arrangement of subjects provided by the classified catalogue.

In comparison with the fully-indexed classified catalogue, the dictionary catalogue is simpler to use, the arrangement easier to understand and is more particularly suited to quick reference under specific subjects than systematic perusal of subject representation in the library's stock.

Didot A family name famous in French printing and publishing during the 18th and 19th centuries. François Didot (1689-1757) was founder of the firm of Didot, Paris, in 1713, many of his descendants being famed in type-founding, printing, paper making and publishing. It was at the mill owned by François Didot (1730-1804) at Essonnes that N. L. Robert experimented with the first paper-making machine (1797), under the patronage of St. Leger Didot who passed the invention to his brother-in-law John Gamble (1799) for

DIDOT SYSTEM

development. The greatest of them was grandson Firmin Didot (1765-1836), printer, engraver and type-founder who cut the first modern-face type in 1785. His use of stereotype revolutionized the making of cheap editions, and the Didot style of book type became standard for France in the 19th century. Waite, H. E. "The House of Didot." *Paper and Print*, 1952, 25, No. 4, 452-8.

Didot system A system of type measurement originated by Ambroise Didot (1730-1804).

5 point = .074 in. 6 point = .089 in.

7 point = .103 in. 8 point = .118 in.

9 point = .133 in. 10 point = .148 in.

Die An intaglio stamp used for printing raised letters.

Die-sinking The process of making dies, die-cutting.

Die-stamping Printing in raised letters by an intaglio die, either with ink, or in blind stamping, without ink. The latter process is used for Braille books, and also in book-binding, for ornamentation.

Die-sunk A depressed panel, especially in bookbinding, produced by pressure from a heated die-stamp.

Difference (in classification) See PRE-DICABLES.

Diffusing screen A translucent screen used in contact printing to ensure even diffusion of light. The screen is sometimes denser at those points immediately facing the electric lamps, to avoid increased light in those areas.

Digest 1. A brief condensation of a written work, often in other words than those of the original. 2. In law, a compact summary of laws, reported cases, decisions, etc., systematically arranged (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Diplomatic(s) The study of official documents, usually early documents, including handwriting and chancery practices, for purposes of authentication (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Major, K. "Record publications and the teaching of diplomatic." *Archives*, 1953, 2, No. 9, 20-25.

Diptych An ancient, hinged writing tablet consisting of two tablets of wood, ivory or metal covered with wax on the inside surface, on which writing was done with a stylus (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Direct half-tone A half-tone block for which the negative is made directly from the subject as distinct from a photograph.

Directory A list of persons or organizations, systematically arranged, usually in alphabetic or classified order, giving address, affiliations, etc., for individuals, and addresses, officers, functions and similar data for organizations (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Dirty proof A proof full of errors and corrections.

Discard A book officially withdrawn from a library collection because it is unfit for further use or is no longer needed (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Discharge The deletion of the record of loan when a book which was borrowed is returned.

Disjoined hand A type of handwriting made up of separate letters, sometimes called script writing.

Display case A floor rack with shelves for exhibiting selected books, also called book display case and book trough (see also EXHIBITION CASE).

Display work A term applied to the use of type in unconventional combinations and faces with a view to attracting attention as in advertising.

Dissecting for colour Matter to be printed in two or more colours is first set up as if for one colour. A proof is taken, and the matter for each colour is separated into individual chases using the proof as guide for position. The black block is usually the key block on which other colours are registered.

Dissertation A written treatise, or the record of a discourse on a subject, prepared and presented in part fulfilment of the conditions for the award of a degree or diploma. Nowadays a dissertation is most often a single written treatise by an individual, presented as the final requirement before the degree is awarded.

Until the mid-18th century, however, it was the custom in universities for the tutor to appoint a question for debate, whereupon one of the students (known as the respondent) wrote a thesis on the question, presented it at the beginning of the debate, and answered any objections to it posed by his fellow students (called opponents), the tutor acting as president of the debate (or *praeses*). In a few European universities this practice still obtains.

Distribution 1. Breaking up the lines of type after printing, and their return to the appropriate portions of the case. In machines such as Linotype, the metal is melted. 2. The spreading of ink on the printing forme.

Divided catalogue A card catalogue separated for convenience of use into two or more units, as an author and title catalogue and a subject catalogue (*ALA Gloss.*).

Divided mould First used in Europe by Whatman (1826); has a deckle running through the mould to divide it into two equal pieces, the separation taking place after the sheet is dried. An economy of effort is thus achieved for smaller sizes of paper.

Dividing stroke See LINE DIVISION MARK.

Division

(a) The process of dividing classes of a classification scheme into smaller groups, i.e. dividing genus into species.

(b) One of the above groups. In the *Decimal classification* a division is subordinate to a main class and a section is subordinate to a division.

This nomenclature, although useful, is not universally accepted and parts of a division are often referred to as subdivisions (see also CLASSIFICATION).

Doctor blade A flexible knife which removes surplus ink from the engraved plate in intaglio printing, e.g. photogravure.

Documentary reproduction

1. Non-photographic

One of the earliest methods of reproducing documents other than by printing was by the use of damp paper. A master was prepared by writing with a copying ink, and copies were produced by pressing the master in an iron

press in contact with a thin translucent paper. The copy was a mirror-image and had to be read through the paper or with the aid of a mirror. James Watt patented a letter-copying press of this kind in 1780, and described both a roller press and a screw press of the kind which is still in use in some solicitors' offices. Another early method of reproducing documents, which still has no equal in the ease with which several copies of a document may be produced, was by the use of carbon paper. This was first used about 150 years ago, and the first British patent was taken out in 1806. A third early form of documentary reproduction was the primitive hectograph of the 18th century, which involved the preparation of a master sheet written with an ink containing dye. This sheet, placed in contact with a flat gelatine surface, left a mirror-image, from which copies could be taken by pressing blank sheets of paper on the surface of the gelatine. The process is still used by amateurs in its primitive form, but there are now improved methods in which a gelatine-coated paper sheet is used in combination with a rotary machine. In this century a new type of hectograph—the spirit duplicator—has largely replaced the older method. The master is prepared by writing, typing or drawing on a sheet of special heavily-coated art paper, with a sheet of hectograph carbon paper, the inked side in contact with the coated surface. In this way the master receives a mirror-image of the matter to be reproduced, and it is then ready to be fixed on a rotary machine. At each revolution a sheet of paper is automatically wiped with a spirit of high alcohol content before being pressed between the master sheet and a roller. A facsimile of the original is transferred to the paper—from which the spirit quickly evaporates. A great advantage of this method is that a number of different coloured carbons may be used, to produce a multi-coloured copy at one operation. Alterations may be quickly made if necessary, and with care from 200–300 copies can be produced from one master. This type of duplication is, however, of special value when a small number of copies of a document is required quickly. The spirit hectograph has been used successfully in libraries for the production of catalogue cards and slips for sheaf catalogues.

DOCUMENTARY REPRODUCTION

The duplicator using a stencil was of much later invention than the early type of hectograph, and the flat-bed kind, invented by Edison and Dick, and independently by Gestetner, preceded the rotary models. This kind of duplicator became known as the cyclostile. The modern electric duplicator with its automatic paper-feed, counting mechanism and automatic stopping device, is a highly efficient and economical machine, and it is possible to produce several thousand copies from one stencil. Stencils may be cleaned and stored for future use. The development during the last 25 years of offset lithographic duplicating machines has made possible inside the office the large-scale production of documents and forms which previously had to be sent out to the printer. Machines of this kind are expensive, but as printing costs rise it is likely that more and more offices and local authorities will install them. The principle of such machines is lithographic. A master plate made of thin zinc or aluminium sheet, or of plastic material, or a 'mat' of material similar to that of duplicator stencils, is prepared by typing directly on to it using a special greasy ribbon. The master is then attached to a rotary machine, and the ink is taken up by the typed parts and repelled by the blank parts. The impression is picked up by a rubber blanket-roller which transfers it to the paper. The masters may be sensitized, and prepared by contact printing; or by the use of a camera.

The typewriter, although it was not invented until the late 1860's, is now an indispensable aid to documentary reproduction. Its use with duplicating machines, and particularly the use of the electric typewriter with offset lithographic machines, presents a challenge to the letterpress printer. The latest electric typewriters permit proportional spacing of letters (where the conventional typewriter allows the same space for "i" and "m", for example), and allows automatic justification or alignment of the right-hand margin.

2. Photographic

The reproduction of documents by photographic means may be effected in many ways, but basically all methods fall into two categories—the optical, in which a camera is

necessary, and the non-optical. Camera methods include the 'Photostat' and similar processes, and straightforward photography with a good camera. Microfilming and the production of microprint are camera methods. The 'Photostat' has after many years become a household word among librarians and readers, and is indiscriminately used in describing any photographic reproduction of a document. It is in fact a trade name, and a 'Photostat' copy of a document is one produced by the 'Photostat' apparatus. This consists of a mounted camera in which the image is projected on to sensitized paper instead of on to a film or plate. At the same time the image, which in normal photography is reversed, is 'corrected' by the passage of the rays of light through a prism. The result is a right-reading copy, which, however, has a white-on-black appearance in place of the black-on-white of the original document. This copy may then be photographed to produce a facsimile of the original, but for most purposes the first print is adequate. Later models of the 'Photostat' camera, which was first introduced in the United States in 1907, automatically develop, wash and dry the prints. Reduced, enlarged or actual-sized prints may be made. Similar cameras are made by other manufacturers in most countries. The photographing of documents by ordinary camera methods is not recommended for libraries, but it is possible with the use of a 'Leica' or other good camera, and a flashbulb, to photograph a document even without the use of a camera-stand. An enlarged print of the film may then be made.

Non-camera methods, the principles of which are as old as photography, have improved rapidly during and since the Second World War. These methods are of two kinds, transmission and reflex, both of which involve contact between the original document and the prepared paper on which the copy is to be made. Enlargement or reduction of the size of the original is therefore impossible. Transmission methods include the familiar blueprint process, the Diazo or dyeline process, and the use of silver halide paper in contact with a single-sided document which is thin enough to permit the passage of light. The blueprint process, long established in architectural and

engineering offices, enables large quantities of prints to be produced at low cost. The process uses rolls of paper coated with ferric salts which undergo change on exposure to light, and which change again during chemical processing, to produce the print. The lines of the original drawing appear white, and the translucent parts of the original appear blue. The single-sided document in the blueprint process is usually the original plan drawn by the architect or engineer. In the Diazo or dyeline process the paper used is coated with a light-sensitive compound which is destroyed on exposure to light. If a translucent original document is exposed in contact with this paper the resultant image is due to the removal of the coating from all parts of the paper except those protected by the print on the document. The print is therefore a facsimile of the original and not in reversed colours as in the case of the blueprint. This method has developed in recent years and it has been adapted for use with double-sided originals in a reflex process. Since the Diazo paper is much cheaper than the silver halide papers used with the 'Photostat' camera, or in normal reflex and transmission copying, it has been used in recent years for taking cheap copies from a negative master prepared on 'Auto-positive' paper. The use of diazo paper for taking copies from a translucent sheet, prepared by typing directly on the sheet with reversed carbon paper behind, is a recent development, which has interesting applications to library work in connection with the production of catalogue cards and sheaf slips. The master in this case may be preserved, and later copies made from it if required.

The reflex process is the oldest of all methods of documentary reproduction by photographic means, and the principles were established by Albrecht Breyer in 1839. Successful results may be obtained with no more elaborate apparatus than a sheet of plate glass and an electric lamp, but there are now on the market many different makes of apparatus—some of them very expensive—which ensure perfection of results. Unfortunately, from the librarian's point of view, most of these machines have been designed for copying single documents such as letters, or thin books and periodicals. The librarian

faced with the problem of taking photocopies of pages in books of all shapes and thickness, and in volumes of periodicals where the inner margin of the text is close to the binding, will find most of the models on the market unsatisfactory, however efficient they are for office use. There are however several models which have been specially designed for library use. The 'Contoura,' for example, is in the form of a box containing the light-source, and has a plastic inflatable translucent bag which ensures perfect contact between sensitized paper and the 'contours' of a book. It was invented by F. W. Ludwig, the Chief Photographer of Yale University's Sterling Memorial Library, in 1949. Another photocopying specially designed for use in libraries is the 'Cormic' Book Printer, which consists of a box containing the lamps, one edge of which has an acute angle over which an open volume may be placed without having to open the volume out flat. In this way good contact with the inner margin of the book is made. Some of the larger machines have now incorporated additional features which make it possible to copy pages from thick volumes. There is, however, the danger of injuring books if they are opened too wide in an attempt to expose the inner margin.

In a large library where photocopies are required in great number the librarian may decide that the 'Photostat' or similar camera is the most efficient. Such cameras are expensive, and their purchase can only be justified in libraries where they would be in daily use in handling a considerable amount of material. The librarian of the smaller library must make other provision, and has a choice of several alternatives. He can buy one of the small portable types of apparatus for reflex copying such as the 'Contoura,' or one of the more elaborate machines, which may, however, prove inadequate when pages from thick volumes have to be copied. He may decide to make use of home-made apparatus, and will be better able to do so if he has a keen amateur photographer on the staff to help. There is as yet no regional provision of photocopies in Great Britain and this is to be deplored, for it is certain that on a co-operative basis smaller libraries could derive great benefit from the use of a regional photographic centre. In the

DOCUMENTARY REPRODUCTION

meantime the photocopying services of the Science Museum Library and the Patent Office Library are widely used by librarians and others for scientific and technical material.

Advances in the field of photocopying are rapid, and it may well be that some method involving a new process, such as Xerography, may eventually prove to be the most satisfactory for use in libraries. There have been many recent advances in the techniques of automatic developing and fixing, and in the use of new types of sensitized papers such as 'Auto-positive' paper. The new methods of photocopying known as transfer processes—the diffusion transfer process and the soft gelatine transfer process—are of great interest because of the speed with which a finished copy may be produced. But the ideal library photocopying service, which would enable the librarian to hand over the counter a perfect facsimile of a page in a book within a minute or two, without the aid of expensive apparatus and at small cost to the purchaser, is still awaited.

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For information about new developments in the field of photographic documentary reproduction refer to: *Photographic Abstracts* (Royal Photographic Society), and *Monthly Abstract Bulletin* (Kodak Research Laboratories, Rochester, New York).

J.W.T.

Documentation History The author has been unable to trace the first use of the word in its modern sense; it may perhaps be said to have come into being in 1930, when the *Bulletin of the International Institute of Bibliography* was resumed after a lapse of 16 years under the title *Documentatio Universalis*. In 1934, Paul Odet, co-founder with Henri La Fontaine of the *International Institute* published his *Traité de Documentation*.¹ At all events, the word had achieved a recognizable significance by 1937 when the *International Institute of Bibliography* changed its name to *International Federation of Documentation* (with headquarters

at The Hague) and extended its scope 'to include all aspects of the art of making information useful.' Dr. S. C. Bradford (twin apostle with Professor A. F. C. Pollard of the Universal Decimal Classification in England) on pp. 101-2 in his book *Documentation*² gives a schedule of the various headings under which documentation is practised to-day.

Definition The most authoritative definition of the word is that adopted by *Aslib* in 1945 for the *Journal of Documentation*,³ namely, 'Recording, organization and dissemination of specialized knowledge.' Documentation does, in fact, embrace the whole gamut of operations from the discovery or creation of new knowledge, through its publication, analysis, classification and arrangement to its arrival at the user; that is to say, report writing, publication, abstracting, classification, indexing, reassembly, presentation and dissemination. While it emerged from librarianship and might be regarded as a part of librarianship in its widest sense, documentation is essentially different from librarianship in a professional sense. 'Documentalists differ from general librarians in that one basic qualification is specialized knowledge at graduate level of the subject in which they organize their services, and that some of the techniques they use presuppose this qualification.'

The creation of the documentalists has been enforced and encouraged by the exigencies of intensive scientific research. In the 19th century it was possible for a scientist to obtain and read personally nearly the whole literature on his special subject and browse in neighbouring fields; as the numbers of scientific workers grew and the literature expanded, both to cover their output and to include the many and widespread applications of science and technology throughout industry, it was no longer a task that could be conducted by the individual. Journals of abstracts were produced as the first solution, commencing in 1830 with the *Pharmaceutisches Centralblatt* (now *Chemisches Zentralblatt*); these, covering fields of knowledge, both broad and narrow, still constitute a valuable tool in the documentalists' equipment. But the ever-increasing outpouring of information made it necessary to supplement these publica-

tions by specialist searchers to serve special interests. Men (and women) were required who, assisted by supporting staff, could devote their whole time to locating as much of the available knowledge as possible and presenting it in acceptable form to the scientists and technologists engaged on research or its industrial application. Thus documentation in its present form came into being to serve research establishments particularly in the applied sciences. The type of service has spread into other fields and is employed widely by industry and various organizations in subjects such as administration, social sciences, market research, production engineering, town planning, etc. The recognition of the new profession in this country was marked by the formation of *Aslib* in 1924 to provide a forum for members to discuss their problems; with its amalgamation in 1948 with the *British Society for International Bibliography*, *Aslib* became the national representative body of the *International Federation of Documentation*. The attention of the scientific world was drawn to the profession by the highly successful *Conference on Scientific Information*, organized by *The Royal Society* in 1948. The Report and papers⁴ of that Conference constitutes a most valuable assembly of knowledge of the problems and techniques of documentation.

Attention has been directed to methods and processes of publishing in alternative forms to type-set; to the inclusion of author's summaries in periodical articles; the translation into a major language of captions and summaries of papers printed in a minor language; standardization of formats, etc. In other words, methods of recording have been studied so as to assist in the subsequent operations of organization and dissemination. Considerable trouble has been taken in developing and standardizing the Universal Decimal Classification so as to facilitate the handling of information exchanged between many centres. The use of microfilm, micro-card and other methods of reproduction have been studied to facilitate ready exchange and dissemination of information. Mechanization of subject indexes and rapid selection devices are constantly under review for the more efficient assembly of information.

DOCUMENTATION

There is an increasing tendency to form subject groups in comparatively narrow fields in order to create workable networks of documentation centres. Thus *Aslib*, in this country has established groups for textiles, fuel and power, aeronautics, engineering, etc., for closer co-operation. A similar movement is in progress on the international level. The *International Council for Building Documentation* was set up in Paris in 1950, with the support of *Unesco* and the *Economic Commission for Europe*; national Building Documentation Committees were established in 15 member countries and a system of exchange worked out. In 1955 at the Conference of the F.I.D. in Brussels there was evidence of other groups similarly coming into being. The aeronautical engineers have achieved a great measure of co-operation through the Advisory Group on Aeronautical Research and Development of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The First International Congress on the Documentation of Applied Chemistry took place in London in 1955.

One of the most intractable problems of documentation is how to get information over to the medium and small-sized industrial firms so as to keep them up to date with scientific and technological information of importance to their efficiency. This is a primary task of the *European Productivity Agency*.

Few books have been written on documentation as a whole, though there are a number of volumes on particular aspects. As befits a growing subject its records are mainly in the form of pamphlets or articles in periodicals. Three important periodicals are listed at the end of this article.^{5, 6, 7}

Training There is no clear line of demarcation between the documentalist (information officer, intelligence officer, etc.) and the librarian. Many of the techniques of the librarian are essential to the former, but there is a great distinction in the emphasis or the use made of them. Nevertheless, many of the studies of the librarian are of no practical value to the documentalist, nor those of the documentalist to the practising librarian. The documentalist is not primarily concerned with the handling of books, pamphlets, etc., as units but rather with assembling the informa-

tion contained within documents together with data from other sources to form a new compilation. For these reasons there is a fairly widespread movement towards separating the training of documentalists from that of librarians. The question has been under consideration by the F.I.D. since 1950; courses are in existence in Holland and France. In England, *Aslib* has held series of short courses and has under active consideration the development of a syllabus for the professional training of graduates.

Moreover, an adequate reading knowledge of foreign languages is essential to the documentalist.

Conclusion Thus, while documentation and librarianship are twin arts, they are by no means identical. They are to a great extent interdependent; a fully equipped information centre requires a team of documentalists, librarians and translators in addition to staff of clerical or sub-professional status.

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- ⁷ *A.B.C.D. (Archives Bibliothèques. Collections. Documentation.)* Bi-monthly. Paris (Association Bibliothécaires Français).

B. A. E.

Dog-eared A book, etc., having leaves turned down at the corners.

Dolet, Etienne (1509-46) Author, printer and bookseller of Lyons; at one time proof-reader to Gryphius. Participated in the great printers' strike at Lyons (1539-72), taking sides with the workers. Was hanged in 1546

at Paris on account of heresies alleged to be found in his books, which were burned, with his body, at the stake.

Dotted print A relief process of engraving in which the parts cut in relief print, and tonal values are rendered by punching small dots through the plate. Also known as *Manière criblée*, *Schrothblatt*.

Double 1. In paper, uncut sizes in inches. Foolscap, $13\frac{1}{2} \times 17$; crown, 15×20 ; demy, $17\frac{1}{2} \times 22\frac{1}{2}$. Double sizes of any standard size sheet can be found by multiplying the lesser measurement by two. 2. Words repeated by error in setting.

Double-book A book printed on half sheets.

Double crown A sheet of paper 30×20 in.

Double dagger (†) The third reference mark.

Double entry Entry for a book in a catalogue under two subject headings. Each entry bears equal information and is of equal importance. Double entry is the most satisfactory solution to the choice of a subject heading in the case of books in which the subject (or form) and the locality covered are of equal interest and importance, e.g. the geology of Scotland.

Double plate A single unit of illustration extending across two confronting pages; usually printed on a leaf of double size folded in the centre and sewn or attached at the fold.

Double numeration A system of enumeration often used in technical and textbooks. The number of the chapter is the key number and illustrations, charts, etc., are numbered on that basis, e.g. Fig. 14.2 indicates the second figure in the 14th chapter (*Book. Gloss.*).

Double register Two ribbons fastened in a book to serve as book-markers.

Double slipcase A slipcase in two parts, one of which fits into the other.

Double spread Especially in advertising, two facing pages across which the matter reads continuously.

Double title-page 1. A term used for two title-pages that face each other, as in many German books; as a rule, one is for the series

or set of volumes as a whole, the other for the particular volumes in the series or set (*cf.* ADDED TITLE-PAGE). 2. A title-page that occupies two facing pages, also called double-spread title-page.

Double-tone ink An ink which gives the effect of more than one tone, the second becoming apparent on drying.

Doubleure An ornamental lining (frequently decorated) of leather, silk, vellum or other material, mounted on the inner face of the cover of an 'extra' binding.

Doubtful authorship Authorship not proved but ascribed to one or more authors without convincing evidence (*cf.* ATTRIBUTED AUTHOR).

Doves Press A private press directed by T.J. Cobden-Sanderson at Hammersmith, London, 1900-16. The *Doves Bible* in five volumes, 1903-05, is considered one of the monuments of English printing.

Dragon's blood A group of resins, dark red in colour, used in photo-engraving to protect parts of the metal from acid action during the etching process.

Drame à clef A play in which one or more characters are based on real persons, with names disguised (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Draw-out When movable type has been insecurely locked in the forme, the action of the press may cause it to rise and even fall out of position.

Dressing a forme Fitting furniture to pages in chases previous to locking up.

Drier A substance used in printing inks to expedite drying by evaporation.

Drop folio A page or folio number at the bottom of a page.

Drop initials Initial letters more than one line high which require special indentation of the text for good composition.

Dropped head Chapter headings which begin lower than the other text pages.

Dry offset Printing by letterpress to a rubber cylinder from which impressions are taken on to paper.

DRY POINT

Dry point A process of engraving in which the line is incised on the plate by a solid piece of steel sharpened like a pencil, and used similarly. No acid is used. The displaced metal is thrown to one side and retaining ink, produces a pleasant tone round the line when printed. Only about 50 prints may be taken before degeneration. Often combined with etching.

Dull-coated Paper coated but not polished: adequate to take fine half-tones.

Dummy 1. A sample copy of the proposed work made up before printing with the actual materials, i.e. paper and covers, and cut to the correct size to show bulk, style of binding, etc. A dummy usually contains a specimen printed page to show suggested type and is useful for estimating costs. 2. A piece of wood or some other material used to replace a book out of its regular position, on which is placed a label indicating the location of the book. Also called 'shelf dummy.' 3. In a file or a catalogue, a piece of paper or cardboard on which is indicated the location of material filed elsewhere or temporarily removed (*Introd. typogr., A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Dummy or false bands Imitation raised bands on the spine of the book.

Duodecimo 12 mo; a sheet or a sheet and a half-sheet, folded to form a gathering of 12 leaves. Colloquially alluded to as 'twelvemo.'

Duotone Two-colour half-tone printing.

Duotype Two half-tone plates produced from the same original, both made from the same half-tone negative, but etched separately to yield different colour values when superimposed.

Duplicate An additional copy, identical in edition, contents, imprint, etc., with a book already in a library, especially a copy to be disposed of by exchange, sale, by gift, etc.

Duplicate pay collection A selection of duplicate copies of new novels which are only available on payment for each book borrowed. After a time these books become part of the ordinary stock which is lent without charge (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Duplicator A machine designed to produce multiple copies by means of a stencil. The stencil, of waxed fibrous material, is 'cut' by typing without a ribbon, and placed on a cylinder covered by an ink-pad. Ink is pressed through the cylinder evenly and is forced through the openings in the stencil on to blank paper fed into the machine. Early duplicators were of the flat-bed type, and the ink was pressed through to the paper by means of a rubber hand-roller. Stencils may also be prepared by drawing or writing on the stencil with a special stylus, or by photographic methods. The first flat-bed duplicator was invented by Edison and Dick, and independently by Gestetner, and the first rotary models appeared in 1899.

Durability Paper durability depends on the physical and chemical structure of paper and the conditions in which it is stored. Physical deterioration may arise from insufficient strength of fibres which may have been weakened in preparation; or from imperfect felting. Chemically it is important that the cellulose fibres should be cleansed of the agents used to separate them from the vegetable matter; failing this, hydrolysis may ensue. A major factor in deterioration is the presence of unbleached cellulose. Storage should be in atmosphere free from excessive humidity variation, light and heat may be equally dangerous.

Dust wrapper The loose paper wrapper or jacket covering the casing of a modern book, usually bearing the title, author's name, often an illustration and advertising matter designed to increase sales of the book.

Dutch paper See VAN Gelder Paper.

Dyall, Charles librarian of the Hulme branch of Manchester, devised in 1863 the first 'indicator' to show readers in a closed access library which books were on the shelves at any time. Subsequently appointed curator of the Walker Art Gallery, Liverpool. (Diagram of indicator in *Libr. World*, 1899, 2, 3-4.)

G.J.

E

Early sheets See **ADVANCE SHEETS**.

Editio princeps 1. The first printed edition of a work previously in manuscript form.

2. Rather grandiosely of any first edition—the better use of the term is for editions of the 15th century.

Edition bindery A bindery in which books are originally bound in quantity for publishers.

Edition binding The kind of bookbinding that is furnished to the book trade, i.e. quantity binding in uniform style for a large number of copies of single titles (see also **PUBLISHER'S BINDING**).

Editions file A card list of editions which a library wishes to add to its collection or to duplicate.

Editor One who prepares for publication a work or collection of works not his own. The editorial labour may be limited to the preparation of the matter for the printer, or it may include supervision of the printing, revision (restitution) or elucidation of the text, and the addition of introductions, notes and other critical matter (*A.A. Code*).

Editor reference A reference in a catalogue from an editor's name, or from an entry under the editor of a work to another entry where more complete information is to be found (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Education for librarianship The most important problems to be faced in this matter are, (i) relationship between general and professional or vocational education, (ii) the purposes of professional education, (iii) the instruments for achieving that purpose, and (iv) the tangible results or rewards of such an educational programme.

To be really effective any kind of vocational training or education must be rooted in a good standard of general education. Without this, the result can only be, at the very best, un-

balanced. In practically all the major library-conscious countries of the world, except Great Britain, this means that education for librarianship is post-graduate. In Britain, the General Certificate of Education is, at present, regarded as adequate. Too low a standard of general education inevitably means a lowering of the standard of professional education and a consequent lowering of standards of service. At the same time it reacts more directly upon the general regard in which the profession is held, quite apart from the estimation of its service value.

Secondly, the basic function of professional education must be sought and realized. It is undoubtedly true that, in its earliest days, it was regarded as a method of teaching basic skills. Gradually, it came to be understood that a comprehension of the principles was of first concern and that adequate skills could readily be developed once the groundwork was well and truly laid. However essentially practical a profession may seem to be, it can only be fully effective if it has a well-developed and well-understood theoretical background. The purpose of education is to create in a man a certain attitude to life; in the case of professional education it is to create in him a certain attitude to his work without making it a matter of dictation as to what that attitude should be. In his inaugural lecture as Edward VII Professor of English Literature at Cambridge in 1913, Quiller-Couch said, '... so that the man we are proud to send forth from our Schools will be remarkable less for something he can take out of his wallet and exhibit for knowledge, than for *being* something, and that *something* a man of unmistakable intellectual breeding, whose trained judgment we can trust to choose the better and reject the worse.' Even after the passage of so many decades this can still be regarded as a good summary of our demands of professional education.

Professional education must never be envisaged simply as a mastery of certain facts or

EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

skills however important or good they may be in themselves, but rather as a course of study and instruction at the end of which there should be the 'intellectual breeding' and 'trained judgment' of which Quiller-Couch spoke. It implies that, first of all, there must be a very vigorous 'job analysis' so far as librarianship is concerned which will reveal exactly what there is of intellectual content within professional work. It should also reveal the measure of any common grounds between the various sections of the library profession, University, Special, Municipal, County, together with that vague borderland of information officers and documentalists. To some practitioners in certain parts of the world all this may sound somewhat fanciful; yet it is surely only reasonable to try and understand exactly what a man is intended to do in a given employment before an attempt is made to educate him for that post. This has not yet been fully done for the profession of librarian. Whatever may be the differences between the various kinds of library, they resemble each other in that they provide services to some particular kind of community. The nature of that service contact must be one which is firmly based in real understanding.

If this then is the purpose of professional education, how is such a programme best implemented? The greatest change in British professional thinking is precisely needed along these lines. The emphasis in the professional mind has always been on the examination rather than the course of study. The general opinion is that the Library Association has placed certain obstacles in the path of intending librarians which must be overcome or bypassed in order that qualifications, the necessary passport to higher status and salaries, may be obtained. Any subterfuge, short of direct cheating in an examination room, was considered legitimate. Short cramming courses, text-book instruction in the form of abbreviated 'primers,' anything of this nature was called into play. Little regard was paid to the course of instruction itself, too rarely was it considered to be a course which would lead to an understanding of a subject area which was vital, or at least of concern, to the librarian. The result of all this rapid

assimilation of material for a three-hour test in an examination room, meant that the information and ideas, imperfectly digested, soon passed when the ordeal by paper was over. Many librarians achieved their Associateship and Fellowship qualifications without being in one whit changed by the intellectual experience they had undergone. It is an attitude of mind which is the very antithesis of education.

By chance some of the methods of instruction used during the inter-war years in Britain did bring results. The Birmingham Summer School, lasting for a fortnight, brought the younger members face to face with experienced tutors and librarians and gave them the incalculable benefit of discussion among themselves. In some parts of the country, where local initiative was strong and resources in personnel were good, part-time courses of memorable quality were held. For years, the correspondence courses of the Association of Assistant Librarians filled a need which was, otherwise, largely unsatisfied. Variable as such courses were, their value in the educational desert of the period cannot be gainsaid and out of it emerged such masterpieces as Herbert Woodbine's bibliography course, tattered fragments of which can still be found in honoured seclusion. But if education is something more than merely preparation for an examination, then one vital factor was missing during these years for the vast majority of students and that was personal contact with tutors and fellow students over an appreciable period during the formative years.

The first school established specifically for the education of librarians was in 1887 when, largely due to the work of Melvil Dewey, the School of Library Economy was founded at Columbia. This was to place an entirely new emphasis on the matter and, due to the fact that the United States of America has gone on developing Library Schools ever since that date, they have never felt the need for the other kinds of instruction with which we are so familiar in this country. Also, since Library Schools in the United States have been the only form of education for the profession, it has meant that they have been able to provide a broadly based theoretical approach to

librarianship in place of the empirical orientation of our British semi-apprentice system. This pattern of American library education has brought in its train a far greater cohesion throughout the whole profession. It is hardly surprising that, since the end of World War II, there has been a noticeable drift towards the American pattern throughout the world while British librarianship is becoming more and more isolated.

Library Schools were much slower in coming to Britain. The School at University College, London, opened in 1919 and, until 1946, it was the only one. Again, there was an example of the backward glance over the shoulder once the hand had been set to the plough. The London School was permitted by the Library Association to set its own syllabus, conduct its own examinations and award its own diploma, but its graduates still had to take one part, chosen arbitrarily, of the Library Association's Final Examination before qualifying for Fellowship.

Some members of the profession thought that even this much educational latitude was a mistake with the result that, when the newer Library Schools were established from 1946 onwards, they were tied hand and foot to the syllabus of the Library Association. This is the most effective method known of preventing healthy growth and the Schools have had to struggle hard to maintain the semblance of vitality.

In regard to the final tangible result of all this endeavour there is again a wide divergence between what may be regarded as American and British practice, each having protagonists in other countries. According to United States' usage the diploma or qualification given by the Library School is the final assessment. The reputation of the Schools is known and their qualifications are judged accordingly. This is in strict accordance with the world-wide usage of University degrees where the multiplicity of qualifications causes no confusion whatsoever and where any attempt at standardization could only be regarded as an unwarranted abandonment of hard-won standards. In Britain, the University College, London, diploma is converted into the Fellowship of the Library Association while all other examinations are in pursuance

of the Associateship or Fellowship. In other words, if a librarian is not an Associate or a Fellow of the Library Association he is not regarded (officially) as a 'qualified' librarian. This curiously anomalous position had led to considerable discontent among librarians, other than those who are public librarians, among whom qualifications other than those in technical librarianship are considered an essential part of their professional competence.

It is reasonable that a final paragraph should be added to suggest what the writer considers to be a desirable pattern of professional education. It would consist of the following points:

1. All professional education to be in the hands of Library Schools, realizing that education means much more than the mere preparation for an examination.
2. Library Schools to be free agents regarding their syllabus, examination and diploma. This in the hope that there would be a healthy divergence among the Schools so that no mass uniformity might ensue.
3. That in the case of Schools which, after careful consideration, were accredited by the national professional association, some kind of general national chartering certificate could be issued in addition to the Library School's diploma.

Whenever changes are suggested in the educational pattern protests always ensue. This is unfortunate and misguided, although perhaps understandable. A profession changes in its outlook from year to year in order to adjust itself to the changing circumstances of the world. Education must always be in advance of general professional practice, leading as it is etymologically bound to do. The educational programme must, therefore, not simply change but it must be the cause of change within the body of the profession. (see also EXAMINATIONS).

R.B.S.

Edwards, Edward (1812-86), a reader in and critic of the British Museum Library who himself joined the Museum staff and attracted the attention of William Ewart, supplying much of the factual and statistical material for the Select Committee on Public Libraries of 1849, Edwards was with Ewart's support

EGG SHELL

appointed first principal librarian of Manchester in 1851, and left this post in 1858 only after extreme friction between himself and his committee, thereafter holding no responsible appointment and ultimately dying in pathetic circumstances. That Edwards was by temperament intractable is clear: that his scholarship and his handling of fact more generally could be erratic and uncritical is indicated by Nicholson's dissatisfaction with his work on the Carte MSS. during his temporary post at the Bodleian as well as by the pseudonymous criticisms made by Thomas Watts of his statistics for the Select Committee in 1849. Yet his fact-gathering and his several publications about libraries were undertaken wholly without hope of personal profit, and served his profession well for many years. Moreover, it was fortunate for Manchester, and perhaps for municipal libraries generally, that the city's first librarian was a Museum man, and a man of scholarly, wide-ranging interests, rather than a librarian trained in the Institute or circulating library tradition. If one seeks a monument to Edward Edwards, the first municipal librarian of his time, it is to be found in the great city reference libraries of the country even more than in the pages of the Select Committee report of 1849.

D.N.B.; life by Thomas Greenwood, 1902.

G.J.

Egg shell A finish presenting a non-glossy, soft, smooth effect to paper. Most antique paper has an egg-shell finish, especially suitable for speedy production in the gravure processes.

Electros See ELECTROTYPE.

Electrotype A plate made by the electrolytic deposition of copper on a mould of wax formed from an illustration block, e.g. a wood engraving, which, when mounted on wood to type height, may be used in place of the original.

Elephant folio A large folio about 14 × 23 in.

Elision marks Three dots, thus . . . used to indicate the omission of a word or words.

Elliot, John (1831-1911), first Librarian of Wolverhampton from 1869-70 until his death, and secretary of the science classes

organized by the Wolverhampton library committee. Invented the first widely known system of visible loan recording, the Elliot indicator, consisting of columns of small shelves, each shelf bearing the call number of a book, into which was inserted a thick and prominently coloured reader's ticket when a book was issued: i.e. the first combination of a public 'indicator,' showing the reader which books were available, and a charging system. *A Practical explanation of the safe and rapid method of issuing library books*, by J. Elliot, inventor of the system, Wolverhampton, 1870.

G.J.

Elzevir A name famous in Dutch printing. The business was founded in Leyden, in 1592 by Louis Elzevir (1540-1617), and five of seven sons followed the profession. Bonaventure (1617-57), in partnership with various nephews, brought the name to its greatest fame. Two grandsons, Daniel and Louis, established a printing house in Amsterdam. They printed in many languages, but largely in Latin, and are best known for reprints of the classics in especially small formats which achieved a meretricious fame among book collectors. Books printed by the house are known as 'Elzevirs.' Also spelled Elsevier and Elzevier.

Em 1. The square of any size of type face. 2. A printer's measure equal to 12 points ($\frac{1}{8}$ in). The standard measure for computing matter and price.

Em dash (—). A punctuation mark.

Em quadrats Squares of metal less than type height used by compositors to fill out lines to the full length in the forme. Usually abbreviated to 'quads.'

Emblem book A type of book in which designs or pictures called emblems, expressing some thought or moral idea, were printed with accompanying proverbs, motto, or explanatory writing, or in which verses were arranged in symbolic shapes such as crosses (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Embossed book A book printed in special raised characters, e.g. Braille or Moon for the blind.

Embossed printing A method of printing whereby the characters appear in relief by means of an engraved die-stamp rather than relief type. One process dusts resins on the surface, and by heating, raises them above the level of the paper.

Emulsion The chemicals with which film or paper is coated. In documentary reproduction the emulsion on papers normally used is composed of silver halide suspended in a medium such as gelatine.

En Half an Em. En quadrats are used for spacing intermediate between em quads and hair spaces.

Enchiridion A handbook, specifically a manual of devotions (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Encyclopaedia A work containing informational articles on subjects in every field of knowledge, usually arranged in alphabetical order, or a similar work limited to a special field or subject (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Endpapers Plain, fancy or printed papers, folded into four pages to page-size, and sewn or pasted or guarded to the first and last sections, one leaf is pasted to the board.

English An old name for a type size, equal to 14 pt.

English finish paper A calendered paper with a smooth but not highly glossy finish.

Engraved title-page A supplementary title-page usually engraved on copper, facing the printed title. Popular in the 17th century, engraved title-pages were frequently elaborate allegorical pictures or symbolic designs, e.g. that in the *Anatomy of melancholy*. Distinction should be made between title-pages wholly engraved and those for which the engraving is merely a surround for type-set matter.

Engraving 1. The art of incising a design on metal plates (copper or steel) or a wood block. The process may be by hand or aided by etching with acid. In modern times photo-engraving uses a combination of photography and etching. 2. The picture printed by an engraving process.

Enschedé & Zonen Foundry and press established by Isaac Enschedé (1681-1761) at

Haarlem in 1703 and still in operation. The firm retains original matrices from the earliest days of its activity while it continues to create new, as for example, 'Lutetia,' one of the most widely praised of modern founts.

Entry A single record of a book in a catalogue, bibliography, etc. To be distinguished from a reference (*q.v.*).

See also ADDED ENTRY; ANALYTICAL ENTRY; AUTHOR ENTRY; CATCHWORD ENTRY; FIRST-WORD ENTRY; FORM ENTRY; GENERAL SECONDARY ENTRY; MAIN ENTRY; SERIES ENTRY; SUBJECT ENTRY; SUBJECT-WORD ENTRY; TITLE ENTRY.

Entry-a-line index An index in which each entry is brief enough to be printed on one line.

Entry word The word by which an entry is filed in the arrangement of a catalogue or bibliography, usually the first word of the heading other than an article. Also called Filing word.

Ephemera 1. Current material, usually pamphlets and clippings, of temporary interest and value. 2. Similar material of the past which has acquired literary or historical significance (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Epigraph An appropriate motto or brief quotation prefixed to a book or a chapter (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Epitome See ABRIDGEMENT.

Eponym A single name under which several writers are published (*Book. Gloss.*).

Erratum list A list of corrections in the text of a book, printed on a separate slip of paper and pasted in a suitable place. Sometimes a blank preliminary or terminal leaf is used. Also known as a Corrigenda (see also CANCEL).

Esparto A coarse grass grown in southern Spain and northern Africa; used in the manufacture of light weight book paper, frequently in conjunction with wood pulp.

Essay periodical An 18th century type of periodical consisting usually of a single essay, as *Tatler*, *Spectator*, *Rambler* (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

ESTIENNE

Estienne (Stephanus), Robert (1503-59), **Henri** (1531-98). French printers and scholars. Robert Estienne became head of a printing establishment in Paris about 1526, was appointed royal printer to Francis I in 1539, and removed to Geneva about 1552. He published numerous editions of the Greek and Latin classics, many of which were enriched with notes by himself; various editions of the Bible (especially the New Testament of 1550). Compiled and published a Latin-French dictionary (the first of its kind) entitled *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae* (1532).

His son, Henri, who succeeded to the business, also edited and printed many editions of the Greek and Latin classics; compiled the celebrated *Thesaurus Linguae Graecae* (1572) and wrote *Apologie pour Herodote* (1556).

The name 'Estienne' was Latinized to Stephanus in imprints.

Etching A process by which a design is drawn on a metal plate directly by the artist, using a sharp needle through a wax coating. The plate is bitten with a mordant, and the incisions are deepened enough to hold ink for printing. Varying times of etching produce stronger lines, and weaker lines may be masked by use of Dragon's Blood. Printing is done in a special roller press giving greater pressure than a printing press.

Evaluation That kind of catalogue annotation which seeks to estimate the value of a work in comparison with other works of the same kind or on the same subject. Also called Critical annotation.

Eve Nicolas and Clovis Eve, both of whom bore the title of Binder to the King of France, the first under Henri III, and the second under Henri IV and Louis XIII. Clovis was probably son or nephew of Nicolas, and according to an old authority, he invented marbled paper.

The name Eve is associated with an elaborate style (the Fanfare or Flourish style) of hand-binding used at the end of the 16th and beginning of the 17th century.

Even page A page of a printed book allotted an even number. Usually, but not always, the verso.

Evolutionary order In classification, the arrangement of subjects in the order in which knowledge and, therefore, its record, may be said to have originated or evolved.

Differing views on what constitutes evolutionary order have caused much difficulty among classifiers and the problem is probably insoluble.

A study of Francis Bacon's *Chart of human learning*, C. A. Cutter's *Expansive classification* and J. D. Brown's *Subject classification* will show some of the arguments.

Ex libris 'From the books,' a phrase preceding the owner's name on a bookplate. Sometimes used as a synonym for 'bookplate.'

Exact size The size of a book usually the height, expressed in inches or centimetres as distinct from the format, e.g. folio, quarto, etc., which is based on the folding of the sheet.

Examinations *Diplomas in librarianship* Two bodies in Britain set examinations in and issue diplomas for librarianship—the Library Association and the University of London. The first professional examination to be held by the Library Association was in 1885.¹ The syllabus for the L.A. examinations has suffered many changes since that date. For a number of years and until 1933, six sectional certificates had to be obtained. The revision of 1933 instituted an elementary examination (corresponding to the Entrance Examination and, since 1956, the First Professional Examination), it also divided the six sectional certificates into Intermediate and Final. This three-stage pattern has persisted ever since, with a number of modifications. The submitting of an essay of 5,000 to 10,000 words was dropped in the 1950 revision of the syllabus. The examination syllabus now consists of the following groups:

- I. First Professional Examination (4 1½-hour papers).
- II. Registration Examination (7 3-hour papers, with a choice in the case of Group D (vii), Literature of a Special Subject).
- III. Final Examination (4 Parts, each consisting of 2 3-hour papers).

Candidates may be referred in the Registration Examination, but not in the Final. The *Library Association year book* or the *Students' handbook* (current edition) must be consulted for full details of the syllabus and of conditions to be fulfilled before sitting the examinations.

The course for the University of London Diploma in Librarianship is run at the School of Librarianship, University College, London, and began in 1919. It is essentially a post-graduate course, lasting not less than one year. The examination for the Diploma has a basic resemblance to the L.A. examination and the passing of the two parts of the School Diploma (plus the payment of a fee) exempts the candidate from Parts 1, 2 and 4 of the L.A. Final examination. In the case of the School Diploma, the candidate has to submit a thesis. The School of Librarianship also provides a course of training in Archives, issuing a Diploma of Archive Administration to successful candidates.

U.S.A. The examination system in the U.S.A. differs radically from that obtaining in Britain.² The various American university schools of librarianship award degrees in librarianship (the B.L.S. or 'B.S. in L.S.'). According to the revised standards set up in 1951, the basic training of a librarian after leaving the secondary school comprises five years of collegiate education: two years of general education, two of subject concentration, and one of professional library education.

Studying for the L.A. examinations

(a) *Full-time school.* Apart from the University College School of Librarianship, there are nine full-time schools of librarianship in Britain.³ It has been suggested by Roy Stokes⁴ that the nine post-war schools should, like the University College School, have the power to set their own syllabus and examinations, subject to Library Association inspection. In such a case term work would be taken into consideration, as well as examination results. This viewpoint has, however, been challenged.⁵ (b) *Part-time.* 43 schools offered part-time courses in librarianship in England and Wales and two in Scotland, according to the L.A. *Students' handbook*, 1955. The various advantages and disadvantages of part-time

study *vis-à-vis* full-time courses are summarized in the A.A.L. Guide, *A general introduction to the examinations and methods of study*, by A. J. Walford (1955), pp. 13-14. (c) *Correspondence courses.* These were initiated by the Library Association in 1904, being taken over by the A.A.L. in 1930. The course covers the present Entrance examination, all parts of the Registration, and a number of parts of the Final. Once again, these courses have their drawbacks, but they also have their place.⁶ (d) Details concerning summer schools, weekend and revision schools, will be found in the current L.A. *Students' handbook*, with subsequent announcement in the *Library Association Record*.

The technique of studying for and taking examinations must depend to some extent on the individual and his circumstances. General hints are provided in the A.A.L. Guide, *A general introduction to the examinations and methods of study*, Chapters 3-4 (and, in the case of the Final, Chapters 6-7) and in the article noted below.⁶ See also EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP.

¹ Hutchings, F. B. *Proceedings of the Annual Conference*, 1952. *Libr. Ass.*, pp. 56-89.

² Shores, L. 'The education of an American librarian.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 33-39.

³ Harrison, J. C. 'School of librarianship,' in *A general introduction to the examinations and methods of study*, by A. J. Walford (A.A.L., 1955) pp. 50-55.

⁴ Stokes, Roy. 'The future of British library schools.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 7-10.

⁵ Correspondence in *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 98-103, 138-9.

⁶ *A general introduction to the examinations* . . . pp. 2-9, 11-13.

⁶ Irwin, R. 'The art of passing examinations.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1952, 54, 87-89.

A. J. W.

Excerpts Selected passages reproduced verbatim from the several works of an author, or from several authors.

Exhibition case A glass-fronted cabinet built into the wall shelves or a glass-topped show case on a stand, in which selected books or other material are placed for display.

EXPANSIVE CLASSIFICATION OF C. A. CUTTER

Expansive classification of Charles Ammi Cutter So called because the author compiled seven successive classification schemes, each an expansion of the one before. The idea was that the basic notation should remain unchanged but that, as the library grew, subjects could be subdivided and the notation expanded. In fact, the notation of the main classes did differ between expansions. The seventh expansion published in unbound parts was left unfinished at the author's death in 1903. It is a 'one man scheme' with no committee or corporation to perpetuate its growth, is used a little in America, but hardly at all elsewhere. The Library of Congress Classification was influenced considerably by Cutter's work.

History Cutter and Dewey were friends, but the former thought that the notation of Dewey's *Decimal classification* would 'not afford that minuteness of classification which experience has taught me to be needed in our library [the Boston Athenaeum].' Neither did Cutter approve of the order. He worked out a new order which he claimed to be evolutionary within its divisions and used for notation the letters of the alphabet and numbers one to nine. An outline was published in 1879.

Eventually the *Expansive classification, Part I: the first six classifications, 1891-93* appeared, a series of expansions designed for collections of every size 'from the village library in its earliest stages to the national library with a million books.'

Principles and outline The letters of the alphabet provide a wide base for the notation and a fair degree of minuteness is obtained with a short symbol. Large capitals represent main classes and small capitals subdivisions. Relative location (as with D.C.) is a feature and the letters can be used decimally. Initial letters are sometimes used mnemonically when they will fit in with the scheme: e.g. main class G is geography; classes BR religion, YF fiction, also have mnemonic value. The first classification outline consists of eight main classes, but Cutter recommends ten. By the time the fifth expansion is reached the main A-Z notation is in full use as follows:

A General Works.

B Philosophy. BR Religion.

C Christianity and Judaism.

D Ecclesiastical history.

E Biography.

F History, Universal history.

G Geography and travels.

H Social sciences.

I Demotics, Sociology.

J Civics, Government, Political science.

K Legislation.

L Sciences and arts together.

M Natural history.

N Botany.

O Zoology.

P Zoology. Pw Anthropology and Ethnology.

Q Medicine.

R Useful arts, Technology.

S Constructive arts, (Engineering and building).

T Manufactures and handicrafts.

U Art of war.

V Recreative arts, Sports, Games, Festivals.

W Art.

X Language.

Y English and American literature.

YF Fiction.

Z Book arts.

Class A appears to be lacking in the seventh expansion, which was extensively revised and the notation expanded to four letters. When bound, the parts form a volume as large as the 12th ed. of Dewey. There is no general introduction or index.

The index refers to each expansion 1-6, e.g. (Classification, library Y, ³Z, ⁵ZQ, ⁶ZQL) but there are indexes to some published parts only of the seventh.

Auxiliary tables (Common subdivisions). First given a single-letter notation, these were later changed to single figures, an early realization that a change of aspect requires a change of symbol. Superficially, these are similar to the *Decimal classification* common subdivisions, but they are separated from the main number by a point and are as follows:

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| .1 theory, | .2 bibliography, |
| .3 biography, | .4 history, |
| .5 dictionaries, | .6 handbooks, |
| .7 periodicals, | .8 societies, |
| .9 collections. | |

They may be applied throughout the scheme.

Local list A table of localities, with two-figure numerical notation, that may be used for dividing geography or any other subject (e.g. history, literature) that will subdivide by area. Numbers run from 11-999 and thus cannot be confused with the subdivisions above. These numbers could be further extended and complicated by Cutter numbers for individual names. (See also CUTTER AUTHOR MARKS.) If one wishes to bring together all material under country the local number may come before the subject number. Bliss, H. E. *The organization of knowledge in libraries*. 2nd ed., 1939. Chapter XI.

Cutter, C. A. *Expansive classification: the first six classifications, 1891-93*.

Mann, M. *Introduction to cataloguing and the classification of books*. 2nd ed., 1943. Chapter V.

Sayers, W. C. B. *A manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955. Chapter XV.

H. R. J. H.

Expenses under the public libraries acts
See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Explanatory guide card A special catalogue guide card, placed at the front of a group of cards each of which has the same initial entry word or conforms to the same broad subject class, bearing an explanation of the sub-arrangement used in that group.

Explicit A statement at the end of a manuscript or an early printed book noting its conclusion and sometimes giving the author's name and the title of the work. It is a contraction for *explicitus est*, it is unfolded (A.L.A. Gloss.).

Exposure The admission of light to the surface of a film or sensitized paper. In documentary reproduction the correct length of exposure will depend on (a) the amount of

light, (b) the contrast in the tones of the document to be copied, (c) the speed of the emulsion on the paper used.

Extension (classification) 'Its range as measured by the number of objects which it denotes or contains under it' [O.E.D.] as distinguished from intension.

Extension card A catalogue card that continues an entry from the preceding card. Often called Continuation card.

'Extra' bindings Fine bindings (usually leather) produced entirely by hand by highly skilled craftsmen and with more than ordinary care and with a higher quality of material than commonly used.

Extra-illustrated 1. Books enlarged by post-publication insertion of matter illustrative of the text, e.g. portraits, maps, letters. The matter may involve mounting the original pages on larger sheets and rebinding into several volumes. Often called *Grangerized* after the *Biographical history of England*, published by Granger in 1769 with blank leaves for this purpose. A favourite subject is Clarendon's *History of the Great Rebellion*, of which a copy in the Bodleian Library is a particularly celebrated example. 2. In a less objectionable meaning, the practice of issuing a parallel edition of a work with many more illustrations than are printed in the cheaper editions.

The catalogue entry for an extra-illustrated book will mention this fact as a note, since the presence of the additional illustrations renders the copy unique, possibly increases its value and cannot properly be included in the collation.

Extract type Type used for inserted matter such as quotations; usually smaller than the text, and frequently italic.

F

Fabiano paper An Italian paper used in fine and special editions.

Face of a type See TYPE FACE.

Facet A particular aspect of a subject or train of characteristics, e.g. in literature may be seen four facets—language, form, author, work.

This term is used chiefly by S. R. Ranganathan in the Colon classification and is explained in detail in Palmer, B. I. and Wells, A. J., *The fundamentals of library classification*, 1951. (See also COLON CLASSIFICATION.)

Facetiae 1. Witty sayings or writings.
2. Books distinguished by coarse and obscene wit (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Facsimile A faithful reproduction of a manuscript or printed document. A reprint of a work in the same or similar type is not usually referred to as a facsimile, the term applying properly to reproductions made by photographic or lithographic processes. A facsimile may be smaller or larger, or the same size as the original.

Factotem An ornament of wood or metal having a space in the centre for the insertion of an upper case letter of a normal fount. Used particularly as an economical means of ornamenting the beginning of a chapter. Also called factotem initial.

False date A date (usually the imprint date) given in a book wrongly, either intentionally or by error. In a catalogue entry such a date would be quoted, the correct date also being given, in the following form: 1953 [*i.e.* 1954].

'False first' edition An edition called 'first edition' by a publisher when there has been a previous edition issued by another firm (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

False imprint See FICTITIOUS IMPRINT.

Fascicule An individually-issued part of a work published over a period in small instalments, usually incomplete in themselves. The

fascicules may or may not be individually numbered, and do not necessarily coincide with the formal divisions or volumes of the complete work.

Fast back The cover stuck directly to the spine of the book. Also called tight back.

Fat Text easily set. Perhaps with a large amount of white space, which would be an easy job for the compositor.

Feathering Designs printed with an irregular edge.

Featherweight paper A very light bulky paper made of esparto grass pulp. Also called Antique.

Fédération Internationale de Documentation See INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION FOR DOCUMENTATION.

Fell types Types cut between 1667 and 1672 by the Dutch letter-founder Walpergen who was introduced to Oxford by Dr. Fell during the revival of the University Press. These types closely followed contemporary Dutch fashions and are similar to those of Van Dyck; falling into disuse in the next century, they were rediscovered by the Rev. C. H. O. Daniel in 1877 and used by him for his private press in Worcester College, and of late were revived by the Oxford University Press especially for books requiring an old style appearance. The Fell ornaments are particularly delicate.

Ferroprussiate process See BLUEPRINT PROCESS.

Festschrift A complimentary or memorial publication in the form of a collection of essays, addresses, or biographical, bibliographical, scientific or other contributions, often embodying the results of research, issued in honour of a person, an institution or a society, usually on the occasion of an anniversary celebration (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Fictitious imprint An imaginary imprint used for the purpose of evading legal and other restrictions, to mask piracies, to protect anonymity of the author, etc. Sometimes called false imprint. The catalogue entry for a book bearing a fictitious imprint may quote this in the form in which it appears in the book or may present it in the conventional imprint order. Where the actual imprint details are ascertained these follow the fictitious imprint, enclosed in brackets.

Filing medium The word, phrase, name or symbol on a card or material to be filed that determines its place in a systematic arrangement. Sometimes called filing term, filing word or entry word (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Filing word See ENTRY WORD.

Fillet 1. A line, either gold or blind, tooled on a book cover. 2. The stamp or wheeled tool for making the design.

Film libraries and librarianship There are two types of film libraries and it is important to distinguish between them. Firstly there is the library which is associated with film production and is referred to as a stock-shot library, or sometimes as a film archive. Secondly, there is the library concerned with film distribution and here the term used is film library. The two types will be considered separately here as although they are occasionally combined the work of each is in fact quite different.

Stock-shot library

Any film unit exposes a great deal more negative than it uses in the final film. Some of this, although unused, may be of value for subsequent film productions. A film unit of average size may produce several hundred shots of this nature a year and with larger units and feature film organizations the number will run into thousands. It is clearly a problem of library organization to arrange this material and compile indexes to it so that it can be referred to again. (It should be pointed out here that it is not necessary to use the original negative from a library shot or 'stock-shot' as it is usually known: copies can be made to provide what are known as dupe negatives.)

Film archives or stock-shot libraries are now

to be found attached to feature film companies, documentary film units and news reel companies and the library staff in such cases work closely with the members of the unit concerned. They may participate in discussions about a film, its form, its script and its detailed editing so that at all stages the resources of the archive can be fully utilized. For example, a script may call for Egyptian market scenes: the library may have a number of Moroccan market scenes. By slight rearrangement of the script it may be possible to use the latter and be spared the expense of special shooting. Such advantages can be gained only if the library is consulted at all stages.

It will be clear from the previous paragraph that a film librarian must be sympathetic to the work of the film-maker and understand his approach if the librarian's suggestions are to be appropriate to the needs of the film. He wants a strong visual sense and far more than his literary colleague he must be able to select material and quite ruthlessly reject unsuitable shots.

This need applies both in building his collection and in using it. Shots that are obviously defective in photographic quality will be rejected immediately and the librarian must be prepared to set high standards, for film-makers when selecting shots for use will themselves set very high standards. Also, however good the picture it must serve some purpose; it must show something or convey a mood. Shots for which no use can be conceived (and here the librarian must be imaginative) should not generally be kept. A large stock-shot library is not necessarily a good one. The photographic quality may vary and the subject interest may be small.

Exactly the same principles operate when using the library as when adding to it. If a director or editor requires a stock-shot he may well be vague on its subject matter or style. He will not want an overwhelming number of shots to choose from, but he will want to see a selection all of which may satisfy his need. It will have to be a good subject, it will need to match in mood, tempo and style the shots around it in the film already and it will need to 'cut' with the shots before and after. The librarian who appreciates these points can greatly assist the film-maker in his task.

FILM LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANSHIP

The detailed technique of a stock-shot library or archive has already been described and is quite comparable to orthodox library methods. When a positive print has been selected for preservation the corresponding negative is located. A catalogue slip is then made out describing the shot, giving the number of the can in which it is stored, the negative edge number by which the shot can be specifically identified and the classification number or alphabetical heading. Depending upon the system used, this slip is placed in the catalogue or further copies are typed out.

Mention must also be made of sound effects. These now form an integral part of all film production and a sound library can be of great value. Sounds, however, can be stored on film, magnetic tape or disc and the library principles involved are similar in all cases. These points are dealt with under sound libraries.

Film libraries

If the archive can be compared to a special library each having detailed records and an active association between librarian and user, the film library is comparable to the lending library and indeed in the U.S.A. many public libraries include films in their lending stock.

In Great Britain however, film libraries are usually quite separate from the public library service and exist either as commercial organizations or as a publicity medium. The commercial libraries make a hire charge for all or most of the films they distribute; other libraries frequently lend their films free of charge to groups or societies. Such libraries consist entirely of completed films. Usually many copies will be held of any one title, sometimes up to 50 or more.

Bookings of films are made by letter, or sometimes by telephone, in which case it is confirmed by a letter. Films, it must be remembered, are booked for a particular day, for a film is only of use with a projector and an audience. If arrangements have been made to hire a projector and collect an audience, the film must arrive in time. For this reason all libraries allow generously for delays in postal services and films may be despatched up to five days before the date of the show and not be expected back so far as another booking is concerned for a further five days. It will be

appreciated that the borrower who retains a film beyond his booking may inconvenience far more people than just the next borrower and persistent offenders are usually warned.

Films, like books, deteriorate with use. A book in bad condition may be usable, but a bad copy of a film will not be readily tolerated by a film audience unable to leave their seats in a darkened hall and libraries issuing bad copies will soon find their loans dropping. It is important, therefore, to check copies of films after each hire for scratches, tears, sprocket hole damage and so on. Hence an examining section forms an integral part of a film lending service. It is the channel through which all films are returned and if the library is to maintain its reputation for good quality prints an efficient examining section is essential. Again borrowers regularly damaging films may be warned.

Film libraries do not have standard methods of procedure although the copies of films are usually given a running serial number to simplify filing and locating copies. Accurate records must be kept of all bookings and confirmation notices of a booking are usually issued on a form, copies of the notice acting as the despatch note and if a charge is made also as an invoice.

An index is usually maintained of borrowers and this sometimes includes a record of loans made. If then a borrower asks for a programme of films to be compiled it will be possible by referring to his record to avoid sending a film he has already seen. When a copy is returned damaged or overdue this can be noted on the borrower's card. In this way it can easily be seen whether this is an isolated instance or whether the borrower is a persistent offender.

This index of borrowers also gives a first distribution list for the catalogue which a library will normally issue. This is essential as the borrowers will not have easy access to the library. Most people will be familiar with a film catalogue. They can take many forms and it is for the librarian to make his choice. Whatever their form in addition to a descriptive list of the films and their running times it will be necessary to add instructions on how to borrow the films.

The catalogue is extremely important for it is the main link between the library and its

borrowers. However, it should not be the only link. Advertising the existence of the library in appropriate periodicals will also stimulate enquiries, many of which will be answered at least in part by sending a copy of the catalogue. Direct approaches can be made to persons and organizations likely to be interested in borrowing the films and special subject lists can be compiled if the library is large enough. All steps must be taken to promote the use of the film library. But behind the promotion must be a reliable distribution service supplying good quality prints of the right films in the right place at the right time.

Film Archives

'Shell Film Unit Stock-Shot Library.' *Aslib. Proc.*, 1952, 4, 59-68.

'Film as a source material for history.' (Elton) *Aslib. Proc.*, 1955, 7, 207-39.

Film libraries

'Now on 16 mm.' *Film User*, 1953, 7, 188-9.

'Life story of a 16 mm print.' *Film User*, 1953, 7, 651-2.

'C.F.L. in its new home.' *Film User*, 1950, 4, 524-5.

'Good presentation.' *Film User*, 1954, 8, 586, 607; 1955, 9, 25-28, 79-82.

B.H.C.

Final proofs Usually called page proof, the last to receive correction from the author or printer before machining.

Finance, public libraries See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Finding list A list of books, often of a special kind or by a particular writer, represented in a library or in the libraries within a given area. The purpose of a finding list is to show whether a particular title is represented and to indicate where each may be found. The entries are therefore brief, consisting usually of author's name, short title, edition, date and location symbol. A finding list of books in various localities is more often called Union finding list.

Fine paper copy A book printed on superior paper to that used for the ordinary trade edition. Sometimes also printed on larger sized sheets (see also LARGE PAPER COPY).

'Fines' Although it is customary to include in Public Library Regulations the penalty of a 'fine' for non-observance of the regulation relating to the return of books within a specified period there is no statutory authority for such a practice. Regulations made under the Public Libraries Acts cannot be enforced by judicial process. So-called 'fines' have been recovered from time to time by action in the County Court but such actions usually go by default. If, however, a defaulting borrower did challenge the library authority to establish its power to impose such a penalty the authority could not do so and the action would fail; that part of the action seeking to recover the book itself would normally, of course, be successful.

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

'Penalties in public libraries.' *Justice of the Peace (Journal)*, 1953, 117, 653.

'Library fines.' *Justice of the Peace (Journal)*, 1953, 117, 785.

A.R.H.

Finish The description of the surface of the paper, e.g. antique, i.e. uncalendered and matt; supercalendered, which is highly glossy. In rag papers, Not (q.v.), and Hot pressed (q.v.).

Finishing Lettering or tooling applied to the cover after binding.

'First' indentation See OUTER INDENTATION.

First-line index An index to poetry, songs, hymns, etc., in which entry is made under the first line of each poem, song, etc.

First proof The first pull of a setting of type after composition. It is read from copy, corrected by the printer, and sent to the author as a galley proof.

First vertical On a standard ruled catalogue card, the vertical line farthest to the left, at which the author heading begins.

First-word entry A catalogue entry made under the first word (other than an article) of a book's title. A title-entry.

Fixed location See CLASSIFICATION.

FIXING

Fixing A photographic process which causes the removal from a negative or print of any light-sensitive chemicals which have not been acted upon by exposure to light. The print should then be unaffected by further exposure to light (see also STABILIZATION).

Flag See MASTHEAD.

Flat back A book back at right angles with the sides, opposed to the usual rounded back. Also called Square back.

Flat proof Prints made from each plate in a colour series, using that colour alone which is to be printed from the plate (see also PROGRESSIVE PROOF).

Flat pull A preliminary proof taken on the machine without any make-ready. Also called rough proof.

Flatbed cylinder press See CYLINDER PRESS.

Fleuron See FLOWER.

Fleuron, The An annual volume on typography conducted for seven years (1923-30) under the editorship of Oliver Simon and Stanley Morison. Because of the distinguished and scholarly character of its contributions, the series had an important effect on the art of printing, and forms an indispensable source for the student.

Flexible sewing The sewing of a book on raised bands, with the thread passing entirely round each band. This is the strongest form of sewing and a style of binding which allows the book to open perfectly flat. It is essentially a hand operation and is confined to the best examples of 'extra' leather binding.

Flong Sheets of papier mâché used for matrices in stereotyping especially in newspaper offices.

Floor case A double-sided bookcase standing on the floor of a room independent of the walls. Also called island stack.

Floors and floorings The qualities needed in floors are that they should be: 1. pleasant in appearance, 2. durable, 3. non-slip, 4. easy to clean, 5. warm, 6. soft, and (for reading rooms) 7. quiet; in addition they should of

course be 8. not too expensive. It is only by weighing up these eight qualities that a floor can be properly judged. There is probably no material which fulfils them all.

Wood, which may be laid in strips, as boards, or in blocks, usually has qualities Nos. 1 and 2; and 3 (if not too highly polished); and 4 and 5; but 6 and 7 depend on the method of fixing; as to 8, certain wood-block and softwood boards are among the cheaper flooring materials.

Cork tiles, noted for quietness to the tread, fulfil Nos. 1-7 and are recommended for reading rooms. They are more expensive than wood, but still a medium-priced material. They are, however, not all suitable for very heavy wear.

Plastic tiles, a recent material, e.g. 'vinyl,' 'acotile,' etc., are available in many colours, and fulfil qualities Nos. 1, 2 and 4; but they are inclined to be slippery, cold, hard and noisy, although some of these qualities are now being improved. They cannot be recommended for reading rooms, but may be used for entrance halls. Much the same applies to glass tiles and clay tiles, though these are harder and colder.

Terrazzo, granolithic and other stone composition floors have the following disadvantages: they are liable to crack, and are cold, hard and noisy. They are durable, and suitable for corridors, entrance halls, etc.

Linoleum as a floor covering, is recommended. It has qualities 1 and 2; and 3, if not highly polished. It must be cleaned by washing with soap and water, and treated with linseed oil. It has qualities 5, 6, 7 and 8 (is cheap, but of course only a floor covering).

Rubber is considered one of the best materials. It certainly has all the qualities 1-7, but not No. 8, since it is extremely expensive.

Carpets have qualities 1, 3 and 5-7, but are not durable under hard wear, are a real nuisance to clean and very expensive. Their sole purpose seems to be as a mark of distinction for the offices of higher ranking librarians! Yorke, F. R. S. & Fowkes, C. R. *Flooring materials*. 1948.

Davidson, D. M. J. *Floors and floorings*. 1939.

Flowers Decorative ornaments cast in type metal used to adorn books without resort to wood-cuts or engravings. First used in the

early 16th century, they were brought to perfection by Caslon and Fournier in the 18th century. To be distinguished from ornamental engravings such as vignettes and from printer's devices.

Flush 'Even with,' i.e. the left margin.

Flush paragraph An unindented paragraph. Usually separated from the preceding text by a lead.

Fly leaves The first and last leaves in a book, next to the endpapers.

Fly sheet A single printed sheet less than folio. Especially a ballad sheet.

Fly title See HALF TITLE.

Focus A term used by S. R. Ranganathan in the Colon classification to denote the 'sharpness' or depth of classification reached when dividing a particular facet or aspect of a subject (see also COLON CLASSIFICATION).

Foil Metal (such as gold or bronze) or pigment carried on a thin backing material, and used in blocking (stamping) book covers.

Fold symbol A symbol indicating the number of leaves into which a sheet is folded, and thereby approximately the size of the page, for example 4to, 8vo, 16mo, etc.

Folded leaf A leaf bound-in at one edge but folded one or more times.

Folding plate A plate bound in by one edge and folded to fit the book, as distinguished from a double plate.

Foldings A general term referring to the folding of a sheet of paper to form a section. The following are the usual foldings—

- Folio (Fo) 4 pages
- Quarto (4to) 8 pages
- Sexto (6to) 12 pages
- Octavo (8vo) 16 pages
- Duodecimo (12mo) 24 pages
- Sextodecimo (16mo) 32 pages
- Octodecimo (18mo) 36 pages
- Vicesimo-quarto (24mo) 48 pages
- Trigesimo-secundo (32mo) 64 pages.

Foliation 1. The consecutive numbering of the leaves of a book, as distinct from the

numbering of the pages (pagination). 2. The statement of the total number of leaves, whether numbered or unnumbered, comprising a book.

Folio 1. Format: a book printed on full size sheets folded medially once, making two leaves, or four pages. 2. Also the form (proportions) resulting from such a folding. 3. A single leaf, especially in a manuscript.

Follow copy An instruction to the printer to set matter exactly as indicated by the author, especially as regards spelling and punctuation.

Follow-up notice See OVERDUE NOTICE.

Follower block A movable piece of wood or metal in a vertical file or card catalogue drawer to hold material in an upright position. Also known as follow block and follower (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Font See FOUNT.

Foolscap A standard size of printing paper measuring $13\frac{1}{2} \times 17$ in. The name is perhaps derived from the watermark of a fool's cap and bells used for this size by old papermakers.

Foot line The line of type at the base of the first page of a gathering under which the signature is placed.

Footnote Matter supplementary to the text placed at the base of the page but within the type area. Set in type two points smaller than the text. Reference marks serve as link between the text and the note.

Fore-edge The edge of a book, section or page, opposite the binding-edge or spine, i.e. the front edge, as distinct from head and tail edges.

Fore-edge painting A picture painted on the fore-edge of a book only visible when the leaves are fanned out evenly at an angle greater than the normal shape of the book. An art particularly associated with Edwards of Halifax in the 19th century.

Foreign languages As a professional qualification. Before sitting the Registration Examination of the Library Association, candidates

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

must produce evidence of having obtained a pass in an approved foreign language examination. This qualification will normally be covered by the General Certificate of Education.

Relative importance Foreign languages are of increasing importance in a world which has become smaller because of improved communications (using this word in its widest sense, to include the written and spoken word as well as forms of travel). For Dr. George Sarton the major European languages were collectively known as 'EFGILS' (English, French, German, Italian, Latin and Spanish).¹ According to Professor J. D. Bernal,² 'French is the only language which seems to be currently understood by readers in any number, with German second and the rest nowhere.' So far as the volume of scientific output is concerned, German and Russian probably rank next to English.

As a staff qualification The insistence on the possession of language qualifications in the case of certain grades of national, university and college library staff is widespread. The language approach may well be superimposed upon the subject approach when a national or large special library allocates to its staff the selection, acquisition and processing of foreign books. In the British Museum, for instance, two such functional groups are the Slavonic and Oriental language departments. These special librarians which have to deal with an amount of material in foreign languages may well have an ancillary, translator staff for scanning, abstracting and translating this foreign material. In any case, the possession of a working knowledge of both French and German—as an introduction to the syntax and vocabulary of the Romance and Teutonic languages—seems a sensible minimum for any self-respecting librarian.

Selection of material in foreign languages in public libraries

(a) The Metropolitan Special Collections Scheme³ covers the provision of foreign literary texts and commentaries, as well as for 'other important works in foreign languages.' An additional London scheme concerns foreign fiction, the languages falling into three groups. Thus, while all the libraries con-

cerned are to maintain good stocks of French, German, Spanish and Italian fiction, only four libraries in each sector of London maintain fair stocks of fiction in Russian, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian and Polish, respectively; ten other languages are the responsibility of ten designated libraries.

The East Midlands Regional Library System has a scheme for organized specialization in modern languages similar to the Metropolitan scheme.

So far as the subject-specialization scheme of the North-West Regional Library System is concerned, it is not clear whether the co-operating libraries are to purchase material in foreign languages on their subjects.⁴

(b) Large public library systems are increasingly 'hiving off' special sections dealing with foreign literature (books, newspapers, periodicals, etc.). Thus, Westminster maintains a German Library.

Co-operative provision of books The Library Association scheme for the co-operative provision of books, periodicals and related material (para. 15 of the interim report, 1949⁵) suggests the setting up of an agency in each country for the dissemination of bibliographical data. The second interim report, 1953, insists on a short-term plan and cites a suggestion that 'the question of coverage in foreign periodicals in the selected subject fields should be tackled first of all.'⁶

An important pioneer effort in the problem of the acquisition of foreign material (methods of selection and purchase, book selection aids, etc.) is Dr. Marjorie Plant's *The supply of foreign books and periodicals to the libraries of the United Kingdom* (Library Association, 1949). Apart from exchanging lists of books recommended for purchase with foreign libraries, much might be done by staging more frequent exhibitions of foreign books and periodicals.

Translation work. Provision of foreign language dictionaries. The provision of foreign language dictionaries, general and special, should not stop short at the bilingual dictionary (e.g. Norwegian-English, English-Norwegian), excellent though some of these are (e.g. Harrap's *Standard French and English dictionary*; the *Dansk-Engelsk Ordbog*, vol. 1 (1954), and Wildhagen's *German-English dictionary*

(1955)⁷. 'Defining' dictionaries, such as that put out by the Académie Française (2 vols. 1931-35) are also important; and so, too, are the dictionaries which provide visual aids (e.g. the Duden series; Sprach-Brockhaus; Larousse).

Technical dictionaries, which are becoming increasingly specialized, will include glossaries—short lists of terms with their equivalents, possibly appearing serially in a periodical (e.g. *Houille Blanche*). The publication of lists of 'equivalents' for technical terms in foreign languages has been the concern of two Aslib Subject Groups—the Textile Group and, more recently, the Engineering Group. Aslib has also been active in the central indexing of translations.⁸ To what extent machine-translating will displace the technical dictionaries, or merely preparing the way for it, is a matter for conjecture. Dr. A. D. Booth's experiments in this field of investigation⁹ are of particular interest.

¹ Pearson, J. D. 'The analytical cataloguing of periodicals in a specialized field.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 3.

² Royal Society. *Scientific information conference*, 1948. Report, p. 600.

³ Hunt, K. G. *Subject specialization and co-operative book purchase in the libraries of Great Britain*. Library Association, 1955, pp. 22-23.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 30.

⁵ *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1949, 51, 30.

⁶ *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 17.

⁷ *International P.E.N. Bull.*, March, 1955, p. 8.

⁸ See also 'Translation of scientific material: a symposium.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1955, 7, 61-73.

⁹ Staveley, R. *Notes on modern bibliography*. Library Association, 1954, p. 57.

The following compendium and bibliographies should not be overlooked:

Von Ostermann, G. F. *Manual of foreign languages for the use of librarians, bibliographers, research workers, editors, translators and printers*. 4th ed. New York, Central Book Co., 1952.

Collison, R. L. *Dictionaries of foreign languages*. London, Hafner Publishing Co., 1955.

Index translationum, 1932-40, 1948—(The 1948 and subsequent annual volumes were published by UNESCO.)

Bibliography of interlingual scientific and technical dictionaries. UNESCO, 3rd ed., 1953.

A. J. W.

Forename entry Entry in a catalogue under the personal name of an author, as distinct from the more usual entry under surname or family name. Saints, sovereigns, ruling princes and members of the immediate families of sovereigns, popes, persons known under first name only, are entered under forename. The majority of Oriental writers are also entered under the personal name.

Form card A card used in catalogues that bears a printed or mimeographed statement applicable to many books, sets, headings, etc., with space for the addition of further information (*ALA Gloss.*).

Form class See CLASSIFICATION.

Form division See CLASSIFICATION.

Form entry The entry of a work in a catalogue under a heading expressing (a) the form in which its subject material is organized, as a periodical or a dictionary, or (b) its literary form, as poetry, drama, etc.

Form heading A heading used for a form entry in a catalogue, e.g. Encyclopaedias; Periodicals; Poetry; Short stories. Sometimes called 'Form subject heading.'

Form sub-heading One of the sub-headings used for sub-arranging, according to their literary or practical form, catalogue entries for books on the same subject, e.g.:

Chemistry—Bibliographies
Chemistry—Dictionaries
Chemistry—Encyclopaedias
Chemistry—Essays.

Format A term defining the size and shape of a book. 1. The number of times the original paper has been folded to form leaves of the book, e.g. folio (folded once), quarto (folded twice), octavo (folded three times), etc. Less strictly, the general proportions and approximate size of a book, etc., which would result from such folding. 2. Loosely, the general appearance and physical make-up of a book, etc., including proportions, size, quality and style of paper and binding, typographical design, margins, illustrations, etc.

FORME

Forme The chase, furniture and type locked up ready for printing.

Forwarding 1. In hand binding, the processes are divided into forwarding and finishing. The former includes all processes between (but not including) sewing and finishing. 2. In edition bookbinding, a term for all the processes subsequent to sewing, but excluding the blocking of the cases.

Fotosetter A machine developed by the Intertype Corporation for the photographic composition of type.

Foul proof A proof with an unusually large number of errors.

Foundry proof One taken before the forme is sent to the foundry to be stereotyped.

Foundry types Type cast in founts for hand composition.

Fount A complete set of all the characters of one face and size of type.

Fourdrinier A machine for making paper in an endless web, introduced by Henry and Sealy Fourdrinier early in the 19th century. Pulp in liquid form is flowed on to a moving wire web where most of the water drains out. The web then passes under the dandy roller, the drying rollers and if necessary, the calendars to impart a special finish.

Fournier, Pierre Simon le jeune (1712-68) French engraver and type-founder, designed many new characters. His foundry became celebrated not only in France, but in foreign countries, especially for 'modern' face types with very fine hair-line serifs. He advocated a point system for type-casting which anticipated present practice. His principal work was the *Manuel typographique* (2 vols., 1764), the first volume treating of engraving and type-founding, the second of printing, with examples of different alphabets. With an older brother, Jean Pierre, he succeeded to the foundry of his father, Jean Claude, which contained many historic founts, among them some from the Le Bé foundry.

Foxing A paper mildew showing as stains or spots. Probably caused in old paper by the

custom of disintegrating rags by allowing them to lie in wet heaps until fungoid growths appeared. If these were not sufficiently cleansed by washing, it seems permanent staining could ensue, but would only be apparent after a period of time. Certain makers, e.g. Baskerville, seem to have hastened the manufacture of their paper unduly, and their books are in consequence often badly stained by foxing.

Fraktur A narrow pointed gothic type with breaks in the lines; the traditional type for German, derived from the minuscule hands.

Frame 1. A binding ornamentation of one or more parallel lines set in some distance from the edges of the sides of the binding. To be distinguished from border. 2. A rack containing type cases from which the compositor works.

Free sheet Paper made of chemical pulp without any admixture of groundwood.

French joint The groove between the board and the shoulder of the backing joint.

French sewing Without tapes.

Frisket A light frame attached to the tympan of the hand-printing press. The frame is covered with a stout paper which is cut by the printer so that when the frisket is folded over the tympan (to which the unprinted paper is pinned) the portion on which the type will impose is clear. The frisket prevents the paper from being inked by the gutters or spaces between type.

Front matter See PRELIMINARIES.

Frontispiece An illustration, usually a plate, facing or preceding the title-page of a book. In a catalogue entry the frontispiece is mentioned as the first item of the 'illustrations' section of the collation, being often abbreviated to 'front. (pl. fronts.)'. Occasionally it may be found that a book contains more than one frontispiece, and a single frontispiece may be printed on both sides.

Although sometimes used to designate an engraved title-page preceding the main title-page the use of this word as such is not countenanced in strict cataloguing.

Fugitive material Material printed in limited quantities and usually of immediate interest only at the time of, or in the place of, publication, such as pamphlets programmes and near-print material (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Full binding The binding of a book in a one-piece cover.

Full cataloguing That kind of cataloguing which, in addition to providing a standard description (full title, edition statement, imprint, collation, etc.) essential for identifying books and locating them in the library, supplies bibliographical, critical and/or further descriptive information.

Full colour The degree of ink which produces rich black letters as distinct from the grey colour of under-inked type.

Full measure Extending across the whole width of a type column or page.

Full point The punctuation mark used at the end of a sentence.

Full score A score giving on separate staves all the parts of a musical composition to be performed simultaneously (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Furnish The materials from which paper is made, e.g. the furnish of litho paper might be: esparto 60 per cent, chemical wood 30 per cent, loading 10 per cent.

Furniture Pieces of wood or metal used to fill in the spaces in a forme between the type and the metal surround, also between the pages. Necessary to hold the type at even pressure (*see also* QUOINS).

Furniture library group *See* LIBRARY CO-OPERATION.

Fust, Johann A German goldsmith, who financed the experiments of Gutenberg. The partnership was later dissolved, and Fust obtained possession of the printing material constructed by Gutenberg. He continued the business with his son-in-law, Peter Schöffer.

G

Galley A shallow metal tray of the width of the line of type in composition, into which type is transferred from the compositor's stick before making into pages. Galleys are about 20-24 in. long and appear to have been first used towards the latter part of the 19th century.

Galley press A printing press used for pulling galley proofs.

Galley proofs Proofs pulled from type in galleys. The stage at which corrections are most easily made by the author, for lines may be altered without disturbing page allocation as would be the case with substantial changes in page proof.

Garamond, Claude (d. c. 1561) French type designer and founder of the 16th century. Perhaps a pupil of Tory, and certainly a pioneer of the Venetian influence in French printing. Noted for his Royal Greek types, and also for complete sets of roman and italic characters which have been among the most influential on later European typography. After his death Garamond's material was dispersed, and much found its way to the Netherlands.

Gascon The name given to the leading French binder of the 17th century. It has been claimed that Gascon was a pseudonym for Florimond Badier.

In hand binding, a style distinguished by the dotted face of the ornaments instead of the continuous or solid line. Also known as *pointille*. In vogue in the first half of the 17th century, immediately succeeding the period of Nicolas and Clovis Eve.

Gathering In books, a sheet of paper folded once (folio), twice (quarto), thrice (octavo), etc.; also, especially in folio format, several sheets folded within one another. A folio gathering may be made up from three sheets thus folded, the sewing appearing between leaf 3 and leaf 4. Also the placing of the

sections of a book in their correct sequence to form the complete book.

Gaufered edges Edges of the leaves of a book decorated with tooling after gilding.

Gaylord electric automatic charging machine An American device similar to the Dickman charging machine but operated by electricity instead of by hand. The reader's card and the book card are inserted in the machine. The bottom corner of the book card operates the machine, which stamps the reader's ticket number and the date on the book card as a record of the loan. At the same time the corner of the card is clipped so that on the next insertion the card is lower in the machine before it operates and each entry is thus stamped above the previous one.

Patterson, S. 'The Gaylord electric automatic charging machine.' *Libr. J.*, 1931, 56, 304-5.

Genealogical table A representation of the lineage of a person or persons in tabular or diagrammatic form. In cataloguing, such representations of fictional families are designated genealogical tables, but graphic outlines of pedigrees of animals are considered diagrams (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

General information reference A general direction in a catalogue, from a specific subject on which the library has no individual books, to the general subject which includes the specific subject, e.g.

Glaciers.

Chapters on this subject will often be found in books entered in this catalogue under the heading Geology.

This kind of reference is sometimes used to obviate the necessity for a number of analytical entries under a specific subject, and is particularly useful in the catalogues of small libraries where every general book must be made to yield its full subject value.

General reference In cataloguing, a particular kind of *see also* reference giving a general direction to the kind of heading under which one may expect to find entries for material on specific subjects or entries for particular kinds of names. Often used as a blanket reference to replace several specific references. Also called General cross-reference, and Information entry, *e.g.*

1. Fruit.

See also under the names of individual fruits, as Apple, Pear, etc.

2. Bibliography.

For bibliography of a person or subject refer to the sub-heading Bibliography under that subject, as Washington, George—Bibliography; or Economics—Bibliography.

General secondary entry An added entry in a catalogue under the name of a person or corporate body whose relation to the work catalogued cannot be indicated by the addition to the heading of a specific designation such as editor, translator, illustrator, etc.

For example:

Main entry:

Johnson, John Arnold.

Book of fairies . . . Adapted from Grimm and Andersen . . . 1911.

General secondary entry:

Grimm, Jakob Ludwig Karl.

Johnson, John Arnold.

Book of fairies . . . Adapted from Grimm and Andersen . . . 1911.

Similar entries necessary for Grimm, Wilhelm Karl, and for Andersen, Hans Christian.

Generalia *See* CLASSIFICATION.

Genus *See* PREDICABLES.

Geographic filing method The arrangement of material, or of entries in a list, catalogue, bibliography, etc., according to place. The term includes both alphabetical arrangement by place-names, and filing by a geographic classification scheme, also sub-arrangement by place within a given filing system.

Alphabetical geographic filing may use the direct or the indirect method of place-name heading. The former expresses the place-name alone, as normally used, *e.g.* Richmond (Virginia). The latter, used frequently in sub-

arrangement, prefaces the name of the country and possibly the division of the country in which the particular place is situated, *e.g.* United States—Virginia—Richmond.

Geographical sub-division Arrangement by locality in a classification scheme, or under a subject heading.

See also CLASSIFICATION and under individual schemes.

Gesner, Konrad von (1516-65) Invented a scheme often considered the first serious book classification. While a professor at Zurich University he published the *Bibliotheca Universalis* (1545) and a supplement (1548). A systematic arrangement of books according to subject is employed, and Sayers argues that a 'hierarchy of knowledge of an ideal kind' results. '... it is the great medieval attempt to relate the arrangement of books to the educational and scientific consensus of the day.' Sayers, W. C. B. *Manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955.

Get-out The number of copies of a given book that must be sold before any profit will be shown on the publisher's account books (*Book. Gloss.*).

Gift book *See* KEEPSAKE.

Gill, Eric (1882-1940) Distinguished English sculptor and type designer. Celebrated for his Gill Sans Serif letter which perhaps derives from a type used by E. Johnston (1918) for London Underground advertisements and which is probably his most popular type, excellent for use on coated papers. Two beautiful roman types, Joanna and Perpetua are particularly suited to general book work.

Gilt edges The head, tail and fore-edge of a book gilded.

Gilt top Having the top edge only gilded.

Glaire An adhesive (made from the white of eggs) used to affix gold leaf in finishing and edge gilding.

Glossy print A paper print that has been dried on a heated metal or ferrotype plate. Also called ferrotype. Photographic prints

GLUING-UP

intended for reproduction should be made on such paper for best results.

Gluing-up The process of applying glue to the spine of a book, after sewing.

Glyphography Printing plates produced by engraving on a copper plate covered with a wax film; the plate then being dusted with powdered graphite, and a metal surface induced by an electrolytic process. The metal deposit is removed, and mounted type high on a block for printing.

Goatskin Leather manufactured from the skins of goats; generally known as morocco, levant or niger, according to the place of its origin.

Gold As used for lettering or decorating in bookbinding it may be in leaf form, or in the form of leaves placed on a thin backing material (in which case it is known as foil). Also some gold foil is manufactured by the deposition of gold on to the backing material.

Gold tooling Impressing an ornamental design in gold on a book-cover by means of heated tools (dies).

Gothic A generic name for a style of type often called Black Letter. Especially applicable to the German developments of the Carolingian minuscule dating from about the 12th century and correlated with the rise of Gothic angular architecture. The name Gothic was applied to this style of writing by the 15th century humanists and their scribes. Early printers took their letter forms from contemporary hands, and in Germany the Gothic hands gave rise to type forms known as *Lettre de forme*, *Lettre de somme* and *Lettre bâtarde* according to the degree of formality of script.

Goudy, Frederic W. American typographer associated with the Village Press, Chicago (1903), with printing at Hingham, Mass. (1904-06), New York (1906). In 1911 the Village Press was re-established and Goudy produced perhaps his most famous type, Kennerley. Goudy types are much favoured in advertising.

Government libraries There are probably over 100 libraries financed wholly from Central

Government funds. They are of many types, but fall into three broad groups—National libraries, and other libraries of national importance; departmental libraries; and special research libraries, mainly (but not entirely) in scientific, technical, medical and agricultural fields. The libraries of the House of Lords and House of Commons fall outside these three groups. The departmental libraries are all in central London; but while most of the libraries in the other two groups are in London or the Home Counties, there are some from these groups in different parts of Great Britain.

National libraries In addition to the Department of Printed Books of the British Museum, the National Libraries of Scotland and Wales, the Science Library and the Patent Office Library this group includes such libraries as those of the British Museum (Natural History), of the Victoria & Albert Museum (the national library on Art), the India Office library (holding the records of the East India Company and much other material on India and the Far East), the libraries of the National Maritime Museum at Greenwich, of the Meteorological Office at Harrow, Middlesex, and of the Geological Museum at South Kensington. All these libraries are open to the public without restriction.

Departmental libraries The 24 main 'Whitehall' Departments all have substantial libraries in their headquarters building. They are: the Ministries of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food; Education; Fuel and Power; Health; Housing and Local Government; Labour and National Service; Pensions and National Insurance; Supply; Transport and Civil Aviation; Works; the Admiralty; Air Ministry; Central Office of Information; Colonial Office; Commonwealth Relations Office; Board of Customs and Excise; Foreign Office; General Post Office; Home Office; Board of Inland Revenue; Department of Scientific and Industrial Research; Board of Trade; Treasury and Cabinet Office; and the War Office. Most of the smaller Departments (such as the Royal Mint, the Public Record Office, the Forestry Commission, the General Registry Office, etc.) also have working collections of books, some of them running into thousands of volumes. The four Scottish Departments maintain a

joint library at St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh.

The departmental libraries have good collections of books and periodicals on the subjects of special concern to their departments, including, in some cases, much older material and material of historical interest. In addition most of them hold material on such subjects of general concern to the Civil Service as administration, management, history of the Civil Service, etc., and perform most of the functions of general reference libraries for their departments. Some of the libraries have extensive collections of Parliamentary Papers (Board of Trade, Ministry of Housing and Local Government, Treasury, Home Office, etc.) and of Parliamentary Debates, Public and Local Acts of Parliament, etc.

Departments with Regional Organizations (Housing and Local Government, Works, Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, Board of Trade and Ministry of Supply etc.) maintain a network of branch libraries in the Provinces. It is also common to find branch libraries inside the London offices of a Ministry—collections of law books and reports for legal advisers, technical collections for technical advisers in administrative departments, statistics libraries, etc. The departmental libraries vary in size from 20,000 volumes or so to nearly 200,000 volumes in some cases.

H.M. Stationery Office acts as a central book and periodical purchasing department. The libraries co-operate freely in lending books to each other, and most of them also lend to outside libraries. Many of them produce lists of recent additions to their stock and make these lists freely available. Some of them are responsible for circulating periodicals throughout their departments but in most cases this work is done by sections of the Ministry other than the library. It is usually possible for these libraries to grant access freely to serious students and research workers who cannot find what they need elsewhere.

Special research libraries These libraries are nearly all attached to Government research stations or to museums. The Department of Scientific and Industrial Research is the parent body of a number of such stations having important libraries. Some examples are the Chemical Research Laboratory and the

National Physical Laboratory, both at Teddington, Middlesex; the Building Research Station, at Garston, near Watford; the Fuel Research Station, at Greenwich; the Forest Products Research Laboratory at Princes Risborough; the Pest Infestation Laboratory, at Slough; the Road Research Laboratory, at West Drayton, Middlesex; the Water Pollution Research Laboratory, at Stevenage. The Ministry of Supply controls other research libraries of which the most important is probably that of the Royal Aircraft Establishment, at Farnborough, Hants. The National Institute for Medical Research has its own special library at Mill Hill, London. The Royal Observatory at Herstmonceux Castle, Sussex, also has an important library. Most of these libraries are accessible to research workers, though prior written application is preferred, and most of them lend books to other libraries.

The library of the Imperial Institute, South Kensington (under the general control of the Colonial Office) serves the Colonial Products Advisory Bureau (Plants and Animals) and the Mineral Resources Division of the Colonial Geological Surveys. It is open to the public for reference only. The Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, has a large library of botanical literature for the use of the staff. It is not open to the public. Many of the national museums and art galleries have libraries, but they also are not usually open to the public. Examples are those of the National Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Wallace Collection and the Tate Gallery. The library of the Imperial War Museum, at Lambeth, containing 50,000 volumes and 2½ million photographs, is, however, open to the public for reference only.

Other libraries The library of the House of Commons is a general library for the use of Members of Parliament only, and places special emphasis on history and the social sciences. The library of the House of Lords is also a general library but places special emphasis on law. Neither library lends its material or is open to the public.

The British Council maintains libraries in the British Institutes of some 50 Commonwealth and Foreign countries which between them contain about 750,000 volumes.

British embassies, legations and consulates in foreign countries, and High Commissioner

GRAIN

offices and U.K. Trade Commissioner offices in Commonwealth countries also have working collections of books and periodicals. Commercial and economic material is supplied to these overseas offices by the Board of Trade library, and other literature either by the Foreign Office library or by the Commonwealth Relations Office.

H.M. Treasury. *A guide to government libraries*. H.M.S.O., 1952. (Now somewhat out of date, but the only general guide published.)

K.A.M.

Grain 1. The direction of the majority of fibres in a sheet of paper, described as long and short. Long grain implies that the longer side of the sheet lies in the same direction as the flow of pulp on the wire. It is desirable that books should be printed on short grain, e.g. 'against the grain' so that the grain of paper runs parallel to the shorter side of the sheet and therefore parallel to the spine of the book. 2. In photography, spotty deposits of silver compound on a developed film tending to lower definition of the printed image. 3. In etching, small penetrations by the mordant into the waxy ground, which give appearance of dots on the background of the etched picture.

Graining Preparation of the surface of metal lithographic plates by grinding them with a muller and sand or mechanically, by pebbles and abrasive.

Gramophone record libraries The controversy over the necessity for gramophone record libraries has been debated at length inside the profession, particularly during the early days of the mushroom growth of this type of library. Whilst these discussions are not finished even to-day, the number of record libraries is still increasing and practically all the earlier established collections have proved their value to the community, are well used and are expanding. It is, however, one of the more costly services provided and this is used as a major argument against its establishment by many librarians. With rising costs for books binding, administration, etc., many libraries have found that their aim of an adequate book-stock has absorbed all their available funds. Other arguments used have been that the

primary function of the library is to provide books, and the librarian should not be deflected from this goal. Difficulties of administration have been emphasized. Counter to these statements, proponents of the service have stressed its cultural value, the logical development from books on music, to scores and thence to records, the new life given to the miniature score collection, by its use with records, and the increased use of the whole of the music collection with a new and wider section of the public to draw upon than ever before.

History of the record collections

One of the earliest references to record libraries in the United Kingdom was made by Sharp.¹ He refers to and considerably amplifies Sir Walford Davies' plea of that time for records and gramophones in public libraries. Besides seeing their value for illustrating talks and lectures he pointed out their very considerable use in work with children, ending his article with a note on the value of recording a local composer's works.

The first collection made by a local authority in England was in Middlesex county in 1935,² and was for the use of schools. London University at Senate House maintained a record collection before 1939, primarily for students, providing also gramophones and sound-proof rooms for music study. The B.B.C. gramophone record library was, of course, the outstanding collection. The earliest record collection open to the general public was at the Chingford Branch of Essex County Library, where the librarian had provided a service paid for by a local differential rate in 1946. It was not until the following year, however, that extensive collections were started at Walthamstow,³ Hampstead and Sutton Coldfield. The next few years marked the commencement of a considerable number of public record collections, principally in the Greater London area. There was also by 1950 one quite important change in record libraries. In June of that year one of the major British record companies produced a number of long playing records for sale here. (This type of recording had been, of course, on sale abroad for a number of years.) Up to this time practically all records on sale in England

were of the standard 78 revolutions-per-minute type, and they formed the complete total of stocks held by libraries. The very great advantages of L.P. records (mainly 33½ r.p.m.) was quickly seen by the borrowing public and within a comparatively short time the record library trial purchases of L.P.s were insufficient to meet the demand for them. To-day for classical music and also a considerable amount of lighter music, which forms the bulk of most public library collections, this type of recording is ideal and the 78 r.p.m. is now out of date. A short history of the advent of L.P.s in this country and their advantages has been given by E. T. Bryant.⁴

In the United States gramophone record collections in public libraries were in existence as early as 1914 in St. Paul's Library, Minnesota, and by 1919 the stock of 600 records had annual issues of 3,500. Early collections were mainly of an educational nature and as in the case of St. Paul's during this period their use was limited to schools and clubs. In 1922 the Californian County Libraries staged a demonstration of teaching musical appreciation by means of the gramophone. By that year all the county libraries in the State had collections for loan to schools. During the 1930's articles in professional journals showed the growing interest in record cataloguing problems as well as the classification of those collections which were run on an open access basis.

The American Library Association and the [American] Music Library Association formed a joint committee to study all aspects of the question. A report by Jeffery Mark in 1933 suggested ways by which gramophone record library practice might be standardized.

In Canada the outstanding collections of records apart from that of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation,⁵ are at London, Ontario,⁶ and Ottawa Public Libraries. Difficulties experienced in Canada were similar to those in the United Kingdom, though developments in techniques in the United States naturally influenced Canadian librarians at an early stage.

Types of record libraries

In the main, record collections in public libraries are for loan to the general public,

with occasional restrictions limiting those who may borrow to residents in the local authority area. In a few cases the collection is limited to societies, musical appreciation groups or for concerts provided by the library.

A number of local authorities also maintain collections for use in schools. Frequently, for efficiency and economy, these are centralized and often housed and administered by the public library department. Considerable advantage to both sides can accrue from this joint service, for each can concentrate on a specific section of the recorded material which is available and of particular interest to it. Thus each collection can be used to supplement the other. The school collection would naturally have educational recordings, musical histories, drama and poetry records, and these would also be available for the occasional request from the public. Conversely the general collection can be called into use to assist teachers with musical appreciation classes and for special programmes.

In the University library the main purpose of the record collection is to assist the student in his studies. Many libraries of this type in America have sets of ear-phones for listening or maintain sound-proof rooms for those who wish to listen to records and study particular works. Needless to say the value of the full score and the miniature score is emphasized with this type of study collection.

Administration

In 1953 the Association of Metropolitan Chief Librarians produced a set of *Draft Public Library Regulations*,⁷ the latter part of which provided for the Gramophone Record Library. There are, however, wide divergencies in practice at the moment, which makes the universal adoption of a standard code to be a thing of the future. Points raised in most record library rules and regulations include the type of needle to be used, and in the case of long-playing records the type of equipment which should be used. In the latter case a light-weight pick-up combined with an exceptionally fine needle tip as used in 'high fidelity' equipment, is a necessity.

Most record libraries open their stocks to residents in the library area, a few allow others working or studying in the area to borrow

GRAMOPHONE RECORD LIBRARIES

either freely or on payment. Deposits, which have to be made before the record library can be used, are a common though by no means universal practice. The amount of deposit varies between 5s. and £2.⁸ The only other charge made apart from the normal overdues, being almost invariably full replacement costs for the infrequent damaged or broken record. Further details of the miscellaneous equipment necessary in a record library is given in a number of references at the end of this article.^{9,10} The organization of a record collection presents a number of points of difference from a book collection. Storage space required is much smaller than with a bookstock. Most libraries keep their records stored vertically in racks with 4-6 in. between uprights. Because of the fragility of most of the old 78 r.p.m. standard records and for other reasons it was the generally accepted practice to have closed access, with an indicator usually on the visible index style.⁹ With the coming of L.P. records and 78s of the unbreakable variety one of the best reasons for closed access has been lost. Some collections are on an open access basis already, and in view of the saving of staff time, others too, are likely to open their stock to the public. The issue of records is usually similar to the issue of books. A completed membership form, with the signature of a guarantor and a deposit is insisted on in a number of libraries. Other libraries merely require the prospective borrower to complete a form joining the library. The number of records issued to each member again varies considerably from two single records or a complete set to six single records or a set. With L.P.s the number of records issued varies between one and three. Apart from a few record album series mainly for Society collectors and special containers for some L.P.s most records are purchased in paper covers. These are unsuitable for the record library and in most cases a manilla cover is provided for issue purposes. A few libraries also provide carriers for use with sets of records

Catalogues and cataloguing

A considerable variety of catalogues are to be seen in British record libraries, as there is here an experimental period similar to the

position in the United States during the middle and late 1930's. There the [American] Music Library Association has produced a *Code for cataloguing phonographic records*,¹⁰ and the Library of Congress *Rules for descriptive cataloguing in the Library of Congress: Phonorecords*.¹¹ A survey of United States cataloguing methods is given by Inez Haskell¹² showing the position in 1945. From the surveys of English libraries it would appear that variety is almost infinite. However, a composer entry, plus a title entry for distinctive titles would appear to be the irreducible minimum. Other entries for performers and form of composition are also necessary to obtain the maximum use of the collection. Proposed cataloguing methods have been outlined in some detail by Margaret Dean-Smith.¹³

With closed access a duplicated or printed catalogue kept up to date by amendment sheets is of great help to members of the library. Naturally, these catalogues give the minimum information and in no way obviate the necessity for detailed card or sheaf catalogues.

Few libraries classify their record stock. In most cases at the moment with closed access, arrangement of records on the shelves is by accession number or maker's number. A few do, however, group their collections according to type of work recorded, and in the cases where open access is allowed this is an advantage though not a necessity.

Types of recordings

Surveys of public record libraries in England and Scotland have been taken quite frequently and on at least two occasions recorded in detail. The Library Association Record devoted almost a complete issue to the subject in July, 1949. In view of the rapid development of the service, many of the facts recorded are now no longer current practice. With the type of records purchased by most libraries there has been, however, little change. With only a few exceptions, as mentioned in a most informative survey by L. G. Lovell,¹⁴ most libraries have collections of classical music and light music, but exclude jazz or modern dance music. An American report on standards for record collections, which is of world-wide application has been

written by Patricia J. Clark.¹⁴ A number of collections also include language records and a smaller percentage cover recordings of plays, poetry, talks, etc.

Other types of record collections in universities and schools tend to concentrate on the needs of the curriculum. With the growing emphasis on visual aids, the record collection is being more and more useful, and teachers are frequently found supplementing their collection by borrowing from public gramophone record libraries. Histories of music such as that issued by Columbia, collections of recordings of representative works from all periods such as the *Anthologie Sonore*, together with drama recordings, sound effects and many other types of records are all of use to schools and universities.

¹ Sharp, H. A. 'Some further uses of gramophones in public libraries.' *Libr. World*, 1922, 25, 297-9.

² Overton, C. D. *Gramophone record library*. Grafton, 1951.

³ Overton, C. D. 'Gramophone record library service.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1947, 49, 224-5.

⁴ Bryant, E. T. 'Long playing records and the gramophone library.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1951, 53, 76-78.

⁵ Bourbeau, M. 'C.B.C. record library.' *Canad. Libr. Ass. Bull.*, 1953, 9, 133-4.

⁶ Curry, D. 'Building a record collection.' *Ontario Libr. Rev.*, 1954, 38, 252-5.

⁷ Association of Metropolitan Chief Librarians. 'Regulations for public libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 257-8.

⁸ Lovell, L. G. 'Gramophone record provision in public libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 251-9.

⁹ 'Visible index for the gramophone record library.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1949, 51, 14-5.

¹⁰ Music Library Association. *Code for cataloging phonographic records* (mimeographed). Washington, D.C., The Association, 1942.

¹¹ Library of Congress (Descriptive Cataloging Division). *Rules for descriptive cataloging in the Library of Congress: phonorecords*. Washington, D.C., 1952.

¹² Haskell, Inez. 'Cataloging of records, musical and non-musical, for a general library.' *P.N.L.A. Quarterly*, 1945, 9, 150-5.

¹³ Dean-Smith, M. 'Proposals towards the cataloging of gramophone records in a

library of national scope.' *J. Document.*, 1952, 8, 141-56.

¹⁴ Clark, P. J. 'Public library record collections.' *News notes of California libraries*, 1954, 49, No. 2.

C.D.O.

Grangerized See EXTRA-ILLUSTRATED.

Graph A representation of any sort of relationship by means of dots, lines, curves, etc., as in mathematics, chemistry, sociological and economic statistics, etc. (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Gravure Term for an intaglio process of printing illustrations from designs engraved or etched on metal plates, e.g. photogravure or rotogravure. Gravure is distinguished by its dense rich solids, by the unobtrusiveness of its screen and by the delicate detail on loaded papers. Cylinder gravure printing has enabled long runs of coloured illustrations to be produced cheaply, as in popular magazines.

Great primer An old name for the size of type equal to modern 18 pt.

Gripper edge See LAY EDGE.

Grolier, Jean (1479-1565) 1. A famous French patron of the arts of the book, born at Lyons, became treasurer of the Duchy of Milan in 1510, and later, moving back to France, became Treasurer-General of that country, in 1547. He remains traditionally one of the greatest of all patrons of the binder's art, magnificent leather bindings having been made for him. Many of these bindings were lettered *Io. Grolierii et amicorum*.

2. Grolier is the name given to ornamental tooling of hand bindings after his style, i.e. an interlaced framework of geometrical figures—circles, squares and diamonds—with scrollwork running through it, and ornaments of Moresque character, generally azure in whole or in part, sometimes in outline only.

Groove The groove between the board and backing-joint of a book bound with 'french joints.'

Grotesque Name given to the earliest sans serif types about 1800. Also extended to types

of unconventional design (see also **SANS SERIF**).

Groundwood pulp The raw material from which newsprint and similar papers are made. Groundwood paper has good printing quality and opacity but lacks the permanence of chemical pulp or rag furnish (see also **MECHANICAL WOOD**).

Guarantor A person who identifies an applicant for a library card and assumes responsibility for his observance of library rules (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Guard 1. A strip of paper, muslin or other thin material (usually sewn into the book) on which an insert leaf or map may be fastened to permit free opening. 2. One of several strips of paper or fabric put together to balance the space to be taken up by a folded insert (this is a compensating guard). 3. A strip of paper or other material to reinforce a fold.

Guard book catalogue A catalogue in book form (bound or loose-leaf), the entries being written or typed, or made on slips and pasted on blank pages. The entries are spaced widely to allow for the insertion of additions, and when a page becomes full or correct interfiling is no longer possible they are cut out and distributed over two pages.

This form of catalogue seeks to retain the simplicity and ease of consultation common to book catalogues, securing also a degree of the flexibility common to card and sheaf catalogues. It is successful where alterations, additions and deletions are relatively infrequent, but where these are common the labour and expense of its upkeep often prove uneconomic. The British Museum library, whose reading room catalogues are of this kind, finds it necessary to maintain two complete catalogues, the second providing substitute volumes for the first whilst the entries in this are being redistributed.

Guard sheet As used on the catalogue card, a leaf of paper (usually thinner than that on which the remainder of the book is printed) bearing descriptive letterpress or an outline drawing, inserted to protect and elucidate the plate or illustration which it accompanies. The

guard sheet is not normally included in the pagination. If the descriptive letterpress is printed on the same kind of paper as the remainder of the book, the term leaf may be used (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Guarding or reinforcing Strengthening the spine folds with paper or fabric.

Guide card A card, having a projecting edge or tab at the top suitably labelled, inserted in a card file to indicate arrangement and facilitate the finding of entries. Guide cards are usually made of thicker, heavier stock than that used for the entry cards, also being distinguished by their different colour. Different lengths and positions of projecting tabs are obtainable, termed wholes (or singles), centre halves, side halves, thirds, fourths and fifths.

Guide slip See **PROCESS SLIP**.

Guillotine A machine for cutting paper, books, etc., which may be power or hand operated.

Gutenberg, Johann (?1398-?1470) A German inventor generally credited with having devised the method of casting separate letters or movable metal types, early in the 15th century. The name of Gutenberg does not figure in the colophon of any books and the evidence for his contribution to the invention of printing is found in the legal archives of Strasburg (c. 1438-44), and Mainz (c. 1450) and in Zell's account of printing in the *Cologne Chronicle* (1499). The principal items associated with Gutenberg beyond the great Bible (sometimes called the Mazarin Bible from the copy first discovered by Debus in 1760), the 31 line Indulgence of 1454 and the Catholicon of 1460. Several books printed about that time credit Gutenberg with the invention of the art, but there is no direct statement as to the extent of his work. The recent examination of the Cracow Fragments suggests that the emergence of the art lies at a much earlier date than has hitherto been surmised.

Gutter A term in imposition applied to the space comprising the margins of the finished page; these should be covered by the frisket in printing.

Gymnasiums The power of providing gymnasiums under the Museums and Gymnasiums Act, 1891, was repealed by the Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1927. That Act also provides that property held by a local authority for gymnasium purposes should, without the necessity for formal

appropriation, be held by them for the purposes of the Act.

As to the maintenance of museums under the Act of 1891 *see* MUSEUMS.

A.R.H.

Gysographic print *See* SEAL PRINT.

H

Hachure On a map, one of a group of lines of varying length and thickness that represent the direction and steepness of slopes on the surface of the earth (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Haggerston, William John (1848-94). First librarian of South Shields and Newcastle upon Tyne, produced in his *Catalogue of the books in the Central Lending Department*, Newcastle, 1880, the most celebrated and most criticized instance of the alphabetical index catalogue or 'title-a-liner,' deriving rather from the abbreviated index entries in Crestadoro's type of index catalogue, without his 'principal' entries, than from the Cutter tradition of dictionary cataloguing. His supplementary catalogue of 1887, on the other hand, was considerably fuller in treatment. (Both obituary and criticism appear in Greenwood's *Library year book*, 1897.)

G.J.

Hagionym The name of a saint taken as a proper name.

Hair-line rule A fine line of varying length used for division of text matter. Rules comprise the basis of much ornamental work in printing.

Hair spaces A variable sized thin space used between letters in composition to aid justification or to emphasize words. Equal to $\frac{1}{12}$ of the body width in the average fount.

Half bound Style of binding having the back and corners covered in a different material from that which covers the sides. The back-covering material usually extends on to the boards about a quarter the width of the board, and the corners are in harmonious proportion.

Half leather A half binding in which the back and corners are of leather and the sides of some different material.

Half-title 1. The brief title usually without author's name or imprint on a full page in

front of the title-page, not the series title. Called also fly title, bastard title and false title. 2. A brief title, printed on a separate leaf or page, preceding the text or introducing the sections of a work. Although the brief title printed at the beginning of the first page of text is sometimes called the half-title, the term caption title is to be preferred. The half-title introducing a section of a work is also called section title and sectional title. 3. By extension, the page or leaf bearing the half-title, although strictly these should be called half-title page and half-title leaf.

Half-tone block Printing plate of copper or zinc produced photographically in conjunction with a mechanically ruled screen by which the image is reduced to a series of dots varying in density with tone values of the original. Etching removes the background leaving the dots to print by relief process.

Half-tone paper A super-calendered or coated paper used for printing half-tones.

Half-tone screens Transparent plates ruled diagonally with opaque lines at right angles to each other. The thickness of the line and the intervening space are approximately equal. Screens need not be ruled at 90°, nor need the ruling be plain lines. Interesting effects are obtained by broken, curved or variegated screens, but the customary screen is the 90° angle, and only varies according to the fineness of the result required, i.e. in the number of rulings to the inch.

Half uncial letter A somewhat informal type of letter of the 5th and 6th centuries based on minuscule forms, especially associated later with the calligraphic revival by Alcuin in the 9th century.

Hand-made paper Very fine quality paper made in individual sheets, on a moulding tray which is dipped in furnish composed of linen rag fibres. Careful drying, sizing and maturing combine to make a very durable,

stable paper suitable for high-class book production.

Hand press A press used in printing offices to pull proofs by hand. The direct descendant of the early press, it is often an Albion model, *i.e.* an iron press similar to that devised by Stanhope in 1800.

Hand set Type set by hand as distinct to that set by machine.

Hand sewing Usually sewing through the fold by hand on the sewing frame, to suspended cords or tapes arranged across the back of a book.

Hanging indentation 1. The form of indentation of a catalogue entry in which the first line begins at author indentation and all successive lines at title indentation. 2. Type set in full measure as to the first line, but with the subsequent lines set in by a space.

Hanging-shoulder notes See MARGINAL NOTES.

Harleian style A style of binding executed for Robert Harley, 1st Earl of Oxford, by Elliot and Chapman, and decorated with large pineapple figures, in broad borders and central panels.

Hayday, James (1796-1872). A famous English binder who introduced many improvements in binding practice. His method of sewing permitted books to open more easily. Pickering and Oxford both employed him extensively on their publications. He retired in 1861.

Head The top edge of a book, section or page.

Head band A small ornamented band, generally of mercerized cotton or silk, placed at the head and tail of a book between the cover and the backs of the folded signatures. In cloth-bound books, the head band has no function except ornamentation; but in a leather-bound book with a head-cap the head band serves as a support to the head-cap. In 'extra' binding the head band is normally made with silk threads on the book and has a structural value in itself; but in other styles of

binding the head band is ready-made and stuck to the spine.

Head-cap The fold of leather over the head band in a leather-bound book. Usually, head-caps are set only on 'extra' bindings.

Head-line See CAPTION and RUNNING TITLE.

Heading The word, words or phrase at the beginning of a catalogue entry, by which the place of that entry in the catalogue is determined. The heading forms the first of the five parts of a standard catalogue entry and is chosen by the cataloguer to indicate some special aspect of the work catalogued (authorship, series, title, subject, literary form, etc.), or to place an entry at a point in the catalogue where an enquirer may reasonably look. Generally, headings will consist of the name of an author, editor, compiler, etc. (whether individual or corporate), or the name of a subject or literary form, or the leading word of a title, or the name of a series. Both the choice of headings, and the form in which each is to appear, are usually decided by reference to a code of cataloguing rules.

Headline 1. A line at the top of the page giving the brief title or chapter heading (see also RUNNING TITLE, CAPTION).

2. A line especially on the front page of a newspaper showing the subject of the article in extra large type.

Headpiece An ornament at the top of a page or a chapter, usually a wood engraving or set of type flowers, to grace the page.

Heating, ventilation and air-conditioning The temperature and humidity at which books and other material are stored must be carefully studied; controlled heating and ventilation are vital both to readers and to books. If the library were merely heated, without change of air, the atmosphere would in winter become dry and stuffy which not only makes readers gasp for fresh air, but also makes paper become dry and brittle. In summer, heating would be superfluous, and the opening of doors and windows would let in too much warm humid air, which would condense on

HEATING, VENTILATION AND AIR-CONDITIONING

the cooler surfaces within the library and lead to damp and mildew. This is experienced especially in tropical or sub-tropical damp climates. The opening of windows also lets in dirt from the air, especially in our industrial cities.

The problem, then, is not easy, since it must be possible to control both humidity and temperature, and if possible also to clean the incoming air.

Heat loss and insulation

Before considering the choice of a heating system the question of conservation of heat within the building should be studied. Unnecessary heat loss is very wasteful, and therefore some extra capital expenditure on heat insulation, especially of roofs and windows, can save fuel for years to come. And fuel economy is now a matter of national importance.

Heat may be lost through walls, floors, roofs, doors and windows. Tables of heat-loss co-efficients for different materials are given in Faber and Kell, chapter 2 (op. cit.), and in other textbooks on heating (e.g. Vernon, H. M. *Principles of heating and ventilation*. Arnold, 1934). Heat loss through windows is a problem often neglected in this country, although it is normal practice on the continent of Europe to install double windows for heat insulation. This has been shown to reduce heat loss through windows by more than a half. Double windows are expensive to construct, and troublesome to clean, but the saving in fuel can be enormous.

It should also be remembered in planning new buildings that a compact plan will result in a building that is easier to heat, since less heat will be lost through outside walls and windows.

Choice of a heating system

The use of individual heating appliances for each room, such as coal fires, gas fires and electric fires is, of course, very expensive, and for a public building like a library some form of central heating is essential. It is more economical in supervision, in fuel and in labour, and a further labour economy can be made in large buildings by the installation of a mechanical stoker.

In a central heating system heat may be

conveyed to the various parts of the building by means of hot air, steam or hot water. Hot air systems have been used much in America; but a large volume of air must be circulated, and the large ducts thus needed are expensive to install, and awkward to incorporate in the building. Steam systems have the drawback of making the radiators either too hot or else, when the steam is turned off, too cold, and control of temperature is therefore difficult. Low pressure hot water is, then, recommended for efficiency, low cost and safety; the heat is given out into the rooms either by means of radiators, or by panels in floors and ceilings.

Next comes the choice of fuel, which to-day lies between coal, coke, gas, oil and electricity. Here national questions of atmospheric pollution and of fuel economy are involved. Coal is no longer cheap and plentiful, and has a high volatile content which pollutes the atmosphere. But among the 'smokeless' coals anthracite gives a high output of heat for its weight and volume. Coke is comparatively cheap, and 'smokeless,' and can if necessary be mixed with anthracite. The recommendations of the Coal Utilization Joint Council should be consulted on questions of solid fuel, and *Post-war building studies*, No. 10. H.M.S.O., 1944.

Alternatives to solid fuel are:

(a) Gas, which is, of course, ashless and smokeless, reduces labour since it eliminates stoking, and obviates storage of fuel; with thermostatic control, supervision becomes almost completely unnecessary. (This system is used at the Building Centre, London.) But gas is much more costly than solid fuel, and the higher cost must be weighed against the advantages listed above.

(b) Oil-firing has advantages similar to gas. It can be stored in a smaller space than solid fuel, and has a higher calorific value for its weight. But again the cost is much higher than solid fuel.

(c) Electricity also has advantages similar to gas, but the heating of whole buildings by electricity is not yet widespread, and if it were to become so the problem of supply might become grave. An example of an electrically heated building containing a well-known library is the R.I.B.A. in

Portland Place, London, where electricity is used during the night (at the off-peak period, at a cheaper rate) to heat up large heat-insulated water storage tanks. During the day the hot water from these is pumped through the radiators and heating panels throughout the building. If this use of electricity were to spread widely the night 'off-peak' period would become a 'peak-period'; and since electricity cannot be stored in large quantities like gas, the whole supply system might be upset. Although this type of electrically heated hot water system is very clean and convenient, it also uses the most expensive fuel.

Comparative tables of running costs of heating systems are given in Faber and Kell (op. cit.) Chapter. 15.

Air-conditioning, i.e. cleaning of air This may be done by various systems:

1. By an air-screen coated with oil, which is automatically cleaned by draining off the dirty oil and pumping in fresh. This is especially good in eliminating the larger sized particles.
2. By washing the air in a spray chamber. This also helps to raise the humidity of the heated air in winter, but tends to make it too humid in summer. This can be overcome by adding a refrigerating plant to keep the spray at a low temperature and at the same time reduce the humidity. Mixing-in some untreated air makes efficient control possible. But the refrigerating plant is expensive.
3. Another way is to pass the air through a fabric such as cotton wool. This is a more efficient method than the two above, but the fabric must of course be replaced frequently in winter.
4. There is another, but rather expensive electrical installation in which the air is ionized and passed between alternate positive and negative metal plates. Little current is used and the system is very efficient.

Faber, O. and Kell, J. R. *Heating and air-conditioning of buildings*. 1936.

Turpin, F. B. *Heating and air-conditioning equipment for buildings*. 1948.

Coal Utilization Joint Council. *Architectural design data for solid fuel*. 1951.

Goddard, H. G. *Economical domestic heating*. 1952.

A.T.

Hectograph A duplicating process. The method involves the transfer of matter, written with an ink-containing dye, to a gelatine surface. From this surface a number of right-reading copies may be taken. The same principle is used in modern spirit duplicators.

Heliograph See REFLEX COPYING.

Heliotype See COLLOTYPE.

Hellbox The waste box into which is cast damaged or broken type for melting.

Hemi-celluloses Non-fibrous carbo-hydrates comparatively resistant to hydrolysis. The general classes are found in wood, viz. those linked with lignin, which should be removed in pulping, and those associated with cellulose. A high hemi-cellulose content is desirable in pulp, for then the bonding and foldability of fibres is high.

Hierarchy (classification) The order in which the terms of a classification scheme are set out in the schedules, showing their precedence, relative importance and connections with each other.

Hieronym A sacred name used as a surname.

Hinge A paper or fabric stub, or guard, that permits the free opening of an insert, leaf, plate or map.

Hinged and jointed plates Two plates having a narrow strip cut from the binding edge and joined together with a common strip of linen to form hinge and joints.

Historiated initial First letter decorated with figures of men and/or animals (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Holdings 1. The books, periodicals and other material in the possession of a library.
2. Specifically, the volumes or parts of a serial in the possession of a library (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Hollow The open space between the cover and the book back of a loose-back volume.

Hollow back See OPEN BACK.

HOLOGRAPH

Holograph A manuscript or document wholly in the author's own handwriting. Hence, holograph reprint, a reproduction of a MS. by mechanical means.

Home bindery A binding department maintained by a libraries' committee and under the control of a librarian.

Homonym A word which, although spelled exactly the same as another, has a different meaning. When considering the choice of subject headings for use in a catalogue, homonyms are best avoided since confusion would result from the interfiling together of entries for books on different subjects under the same subject-name. Nevertheless, where no satisfactory alternative for one of two homonyms exists, both must be used as subject headings. In this case a qualifying word or phrase must be added to each, which serves both to identify the meanings and to separate the entries on the different subjects, e.g. *Seals* (Glyptic art), *Seals* (Mammals).

Hooked on own guard An illustration secured by folding its binding edge to form a 'guard' which is hooked around the fold of the section before sewing.

Hornbook An early form of primer, consisting of a sheet of parchment or paper, mounted on a thin piece of wood with a handle at the bottom and protected by transparent horn (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Hospital libraries The potential reader in the hospital has been rather neglected in the past by public libraries, preoccupied with ever-increasing demands from within their own walls, and the impetus in the hospital library movement during the past 40 years has come mainly from the Hospital Library Department of the British Red Cross Society and Order of St. John of Jerusalem, which has laid the foundations of the hospital library service of the future.

When the National Health Service Act was implemented in 1948, the Red Cross Hospital Library Department, being a centrally-organized service, was not affected by the new administrative scheme. But where public library services to hospitals were concerned it caused administrative and financial difficulties

since the library areas and hospital groups were rarely coterminous. The Act divided the country, for administrative purposes, into 14 regions, each with a Regional Board to administer generally on behalf of the Minister of Health the hospital and specialist services in the area. The Regions contain a number of Groups of hospitals, each Group managed and controlled by hospital management committees on behalf of the Regional Boards. The management committees, within defined financial limits, are given a free hand to administer their hospitals.

Commonly a Group is composed of one, or two main hospitals and three to seven satellite hospitals, and the total number of beds in each Group varies from 500-3,000. Mental hospitals and also sanatoria, if large enough, may form single entities under one management committee, or if smaller, may be linked for this purpose with another hospital or hospitals.

The affairs of the undergraduate and post-graduate teaching hospitals of the country are controlled by Boards of Governors which, like the Regional Boards, are directly responsible to the Ministry. Teaching hospitals may well comprise several units which were formerly independent hospitals.

The hospitals in one Group may be in as many as five different library areas, and any kind of uniformity of library service within the Group could only have been achieved after protracted negotiations. Most general hospitals and sanatoria are now served by the British Red Cross Society, but library services are also provided by other voluntary organizations, e.g. Middlesex Hospital Ladies' Association, and by individual hospitals which have appointed Chartered Librarians to organize library services for the Group, e.g. St. Thomas's Hospital, St. Bartholomew's Hospital, West Middlesex Hospital. Some municipal and county libraries have entered into agreements with management committees to provide library services which vary considerably in the provision of books and personnel as well as in the apportionment of costs.

The scope of any library in any hospital is governed by the amount of money available, but no matter how much money is available for books the most important factor in any

hospital library service is always the librarian. It is her, or his, function to fill the book-trolley with a selection of books from the shelves of the library, chosen to arouse the interest of the patients in the ward she is to visit. By her selection of the hundred odd books which the trolley will hold she will endeavour to show the resources of the bookstock and to ensure that the reading tastes of patients previously seen will be followed up. Once in the ward she must approach each patient in turn and show him the trolley explaining the arrangement of the books and conveying her readiness to assist the patient in his choice of books.

The right personality is far more important than technical ability in this field of librarianship. An interest in and liking for people is essential. She must be tactful in her dealings with the staff she will encounter in the wards, who will include almoners, physiotherapists, porters, orderlies as well as doctors and nurses. A wide knowledge of the bookstock and an ability to memorize the plots of novels are invaluable assets, and her approach both to the patients and his reading tastes must be free from prejudice.

A patient's reading is largely governed by his length of stay in hospital, the amount of pain he suffers and his ability to concentrate in a busy ward; and further qualified by what may be called his book background. The librarian's ability to meet the constant challenge she will find during her round of the ward will be measured by her success in placing the right book in the hands of the patient who never reads, the one who sometimes reads and the one who cannot live without books. The work is, therefore, stimulating and satisfying, but exhausting.

The success of the hospital library will depend not only on the librarian but also on the bookstock. The bookstock, however small, should be specially selected, bearing in mind the type of hospital and the area served. If it is supplied by a public library a record of the books in the hospital library stock will have to be maintained at the central library and the hospital librarian should be allowed, as far as possible, to select them. If there is no full-time librarian regular visits by the same member of the staff are essential in order to keep a check on the books. No matter how

well organized a hospital library is there will always be a varying number of books missing in the wards, most of which will reappear suddenly and without comment. Co-operation with a neighbouring public library in the case of an independent hospital library, is essential if requests by patients for out-of-print books and books on special aspects of a subject are to be satisfied, but the time factor may mean that it is sometimes impossible to obtain the books required before the patient is discharged from the general hospital. In this case the patient should be put in touch with his local library. A separate record must be kept of books borrowed from outside libraries in order to keep control of them.

The percentage of fiction to non-fiction should be about 60 per cent to 40 per cent. Detective and adventure stories, historical novels, family stories and novels of narrative power should be strongly represented as well as the classics and novels of the day. Travel and biography are perhaps the most important sections of non-fiction books but history, sports and pastimes, poetry, religion and the arts will also be continually in demand. Picture books, such as the *Country life* series, will be useful for patients who cannot concentrate for more than a few minutes at a time. Good type and paper is very important. In order to give a colourful appearance to the book-trolley book jackets should be covered with plastic covers or the insides stiffened with brown paper. Rebinding should be kept to the minimum since too many re-bound books give an air of sameness to the small selection on the trolley.

The method employed to record the loan of books should be as simple as possible. A card bearing the author and title of the book and the accessions number should be removed from a pocket in the front or back of the book and the patient's bed number, surname and the date of issue written on it. A date label is not necessary but if stamped with the day of issue it will provide a guide to replacement value and a clue when the charging card cannot be found. The bed number is an aid in tracing books especially as surnames are sometimes misheard. The cards are filed in author order behind a ward guide. A notebook for each ward is invaluable, and is

HOSPITAL LIBRARIES

particularly useful to write down requests for books which may have to be reserved. A sheaf catalogue is preferable to cards because it is portable.

It is possible to link the reading of long-term patients with their rehabilitation and for this reason work in sanatoria and mental hospitals is especially satisfying. There are plenty of opportunities for librarians willing to work with the mentally sick because there are still many mental hospitals without any organized library service. Although, for reasons of economy, some mental hospitals expect their librarians to organize educational activities as well as the library service the librarian with a real interest in her work and the constant aim to take books to as many patients as possible will have no time for extra-library projects. The number of wards to which the librarian will penetrate will depend on the amount of co-operation she is given by the medical and nursing staff and the extent to which she can win the co-operation of the more disturbed cases. Since most mental hospitals are built over a large area the physical task of taking the books to the patients will present far more difficulties than it will in most general hospitals.

If the library is large enough to supply the staff as well as the patients its success will be more than doubled. This is not only because the necessarily bigger stock will provide a better selection for the patients but because the co-operation of the staff towards the librarian will increase with a greater understanding of her work on the wards. Hospitals are close communities, traditionally conservative in their outlook and naturally circumspect in entering into new and costly commitments, but the live librarian whose job it is not only to provide books for the patients but also for all grades of staff, and who endeavours to understand the workings of the hospital, will find that the recognition that the library can contribute much to maintaining the link with the world outside will gradually take hold.

S.M.

St. John and Red Cross Hospital Library Service

History 'Books for the sick' are no longer looked upon as recreation alone, but as part of the treatment and rehabilitation of patients.

But the bringing of libraries to the sick reader must be undertaken by trained people, working on behalf of an organization, with the necessary facilities for providing such a specialized service.

The Order of St. John and the British Red Cross Society were pioneers in this field and the present organization is the result of the growth of such an organization. The work was started by small groups visiting hospitals with books during the 1914-18 war and continued on a modified scale between the wars, but in 1939 the work was expanded by the Joint War Organization, the groups were combined under local organizers, and county book depots set up. By the end of the war the importance of this work was established and St. John and Red Cross Hospital Libraries became a Department of the Joint Committee of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and British Red Cross Society.

Until June 30th, 1950, full library facilities were available free to civilian hospitals of all types as well as to all service, ex-service and Ministry of Pensions patients in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and to service hospitals overseas. The funds of the Joint Committee, however, were primarily to provide free libraries for service and disabled ex-service patients, and it became evident that these funds would be sufficient only to meet these primary commitments, therefore, after negotiations with the Ministry of Health, it was agreed that civilian hospitals wishing to have a St. John and Red Cross Hospital Library must contribute towards the cost. This contribution is at the present date, 10s. 6d. per occupied bed per annum, or less than 2½d. per occupied bed per week. In certain cases, i.e. fever or mental hospitals and TB. home-bound patients, the rate of this contribution is adjusted according to the type of service required.

What the St. John and Red Cross Hospital Library Service involves

The full service provides and maintains a library in the hospital with trolleys and baskets on which a 'library-in-miniature' is taken to every ward. In addition to the library in the hospital there are book and book-repairing depots in every county to supplement the

stock held in the hospital. These depots, the administration of the libraries and the liaison with the hospital authorities is supervised by a County Organizer. It would be impossible either in the library at the hospital or in the depot to keep every book likely to be required, so there are large loan libraries at London Headquarters to which patients' individual requests may be forwarded. These same full facilities are available to all TB. patients in hospitals, clinics and in their own homes from special loan libraries solely for their use.

The disabled reader is catered for. Book rests of various designs, electrical reading aids, such as the microfilm projector with a loan library of microfilmed books, and the automatic page turner are supplied on loan as part of the service.

The hospital librarian—qualifications and training

Few people outside the library world realize that the job of a hospital librarian is a specialized one—that it is one thing to deal with those who can come to the library and choose for themselves and quite another to take the bookshelves to the bedside and provide a choice for the sick reader.

Although no previous experience is required for hospital library work, and training can teach much, several basic qualifications are necessary. The most important of these is a love of reading, the wish to share this pleasure with others and a desire to help the sick. Tact and friendliness in dealing with patients, and understanding of people and the ability to give comfort without stepping into the province of the medical staff are also essential.

The training of St. John and Red Cross Hospital Librarians falls into two parts: the first called Basic Training which consists of a minimum total of eight hours and is given in the county by a Training Librarian and comprises four hours practical work in the wards and four hours administration work in the library.

The hospital librarian must be instructed in the importance of trolley 'dressing,' i.e. the preparation of the trolley according to the special needs of the different types of wards. It is essential that every patient will find some-

thing he wants to read. It is usually found that the long term patient will want more serious books, while the short term patient only wishes to fill in time with the lighter kind of reading. Different types of illness, too, are often reflected in the choice of literature. So the librarian must read widely and study reviews and criticisms so that she can suggest alternative titles if the particular book requested is not immediately available.

The second part of the training comes after six months experience of hospital library work, the librarian is then eligible to take the Category Training Course lasting five days and includes visits to a public library, other hospital libraries and book shops: lectures by a doctor and a matron on 'The Approach to the Patient' and the place of the hospital librarian on the staff; talks on books by a literary man or woman. The candidates are also required to do a ward round and the Training Librarian reports on their efficiency. At the end of the Course, a written examination, lasting from 2½ to 3 hours is taken. The written paper together with reports from the County Organizer and the Training Librarian are marked by the Headquarters Examining Panel. Successful candidates qualify for the certificate issued by the Order of St. John and the British Red Cross Society. Constant Refresher Courses for Librarians and special Courses for Training Librarians are held at the London Headquarters.

Method of book issue

Three cards are made out for each book, two catalogue cards and one issue card.

Non-fiction catalogue cards are filed under:

- (a) author; (b) subject.

Fiction catalogue cards are filed under:

- (a) author; (b) title.

Each book contains a pocket glued into the back cover, into which is slipped an issue card bearing the author and title of the book. When the book is issued the card is removed, marked with the date and name and bed number of the reader and placed in an envelope or box bearing the name of the ward. When the book is returned the appropriate issue card is replaced in the pocket.

HOTMELT

Statistics

Except in a few cases, less than 200 altogether, this work is still carried out by voluntary personnel—who number over 4,000—and at present libraries are maintained in some 1,600 hospitals of all types, civilian, prison and Service hospitals at home and in all Service hospitals overseas, and involves a circulation of some 5 million books a year. These books come from many sources. In addition to those purchased from funds, large quantities are given by the general public, by booksellers, publishers and by authors. Any books that are not required for distribution or not worth rebinding are sold and the proceeds used for buying books which are in demand. About 25 per cent of the bookstock is made up by these gifts and the purchases made from the sale of gifted books and magazines.

There is always a job to suit anyone who is prepared to give their time, however little (but it must be regularly). Clerical work in the depot, drivers, book collectors, repairers and hospital librarians, all of whom are an essential part of the important task of providing books for the sick.

J.H.S.

Allsop, K. M. *A mental hospital library*. 1951.

Bedwell, C. E. A. ed. *Manual for hospital librarians*. 1947.

Jones, E. K. *Hospital libraries*. Amer. Libr. Ass., 1937. (In course of revision.)

Mason, M. F. *The patient's library*. New York, 1943.

Pomeroy, E. *A.B.C.'s for hospital librarians*. 1943.

S.M.

Hotmelt Any adhesive which is applied hot and which sets as it cools.

Hot-pressed A finish imparted to high quality rag paper by pressure from hot metal plates. Made popular in England by Baskerville.

House style The uniform manner followed by a particular printing house with regard to grammar, punctuation and abbreviations. Always followed in the absence of instructions to the contrary.

Hulme, Edward Wyndham (1859-1954). Librarian of the Patent Office from 1894 to 1919, is best known professionally as the advocate of 'literary warrant' in classification, i.e. classification based on the groupings and proportions found in an actual collection of books rather than on an abstract consideration of subject matter without reference to its literary expression. This led to his praise for the Library of Congress classification and his formulation of a scheme for the Patent Office Library closely resembling its technology sections.

G.J.

Humanistic hand A style of handwriting based on classical Roman capitals and the Carolingian minuscule. Currently used by 15th century Italian manuscript writers, the style was copied by the early printers and became the basis of modern Roman types.

Hygrometer An instrument for measuring humidity.

Hypo The agent commonly used in photography when fixing a print. An abbreviation for hyposulphite of soda, the name formerly given to sodium thiosulphate.

I

Illuminated Adorned by hand with richly coloured ornamental initial letters, decorative designs or illustrations. A feature of many ancient manuscripts and early printed books.

Illustration 1. Matter supplementary to the printed text and either elucidatory or ornamental. Should be distinguished especially in manuscripts from *Illumination* which uses precious metals, and from *Type Flowers or Borders*. Illustrations may be produced by many relief, intaglio or planographic processes, in black and white or colour, and the method chosen will determine the paper necessary. The type of book also greatly influences the illustration process.

2. In the narrow sense used in cataloguing pictorial representations occurring within the text, as distinct from photographs, maps, plans, facsimiles, tables and diagrams.

Illustration collections or *picture collections*, as they are popularly termed in America, can, for convenience, be grouped into two broad categories.

(a) Those belonging to various types of institutions who organize the collections primarily as an aid to their work and as an integral part of the administration, and

(b) Those of public libraries.

(a) *Institutional* Illustration collections in this category are frequently to be found in magazine publishing houses, as part of newspaper libraries, as an adjunct to museum services, information departments, travel and colonial offices, airway companies, theatres, film companies, business houses and the like. In a narrower sense, archive collections will include photographs and prints as part of the documented histories of the localities in question (local history collections as such are, however, not strictly within the scope of this article).

The collections in these institutions will probably consist mainly of photographs taken by their own photographers and will naturally concentrate on the work of the particular

concern. They will also include other relevant material obtained from all available sources. The main purpose of such collections will be to assist in the day to day work of the institution but in turn, they may be available for general loan on payment of a fee, and/or for consultation on the premises only, by the general public. Where it is in the interests of the organization itself, i.e. in the case of travel agencies, government information departments, etc., pictures may be lent to public free of charge. The publicity material available may also include film strips, documentary films and lantern slides.

Some collections may assume enormous proportions involving a large staff, highly organized administration, classification and indexing, but the degree of exploitation will depend on their direct value to the work of the individual concern and any financial return from loans. Two of the largest such collections are the 'Picture Post Library' of London, and the 'Picture Library, Life Magazine', New York. The former contains some 5,000,000 pictures organized by a staff of 24 assistants, including a darkroom staff for copying and printing. It is organized into four sections: 1. Portraits. 2. Historical. 3. Modern and 4. Topographical, and is classified by Main Alphabetical Subject Headings, coded by the first three letters of the heading, followed by divisions and subdivisions. It is available not only to the Hulton Press but also to the press and publishing world at large, and in fact, to anyone wishing to reproduce pictures, which must be paid for at prescribed rates. The *Life* collection contains some 3,000,000 prints to which 1,500 are being added each week and serves the needs of the various associated magazines. It is organized in three sections with an alphabetical classification by subject headings, chosen on the basis of experience. Issues may amount to 25,000 per month. There is a staff of 21 assistants.

Other extensive collections of note include 'Mirrorpic' (*Daily Mirror*), which embraces

ILLUSTRATION COLLECTIONS

over 1,000,000 items, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Central Office of Information, Odhams Press, the National Geographical Society's collection of over 500,000 pictures maintained exclusively for use by the Society, the Johnson Publishing Company and the Philadelphia Inquirer. Many other well-known concerns have valuable collections associated with their interests, details of which can be ascertained from *British sources of photographs and pictures*.

(b) *Public libraries* Collections in public libraries are generally more extensively organized in America than in Great Britain. They include phenomenally large collections, such as those held by Newark, New York and Los Angeles, some of which comprise as many as a million items. In America the practice of building up picture collections on a departmental basis is common, i.e. as adjuncts to the History Department, the Literature Department, the Fine Arts Department, etc. The New York Public Library Collection on Theatre, in itself exceeds 500,000 items and their Universal Pictures Collection exceeds 150,000. Other notable American collections include those of Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Seattle and Washington, D.C. Generally the American practice of classification is based on subject headings.

In Great Britain the collections cannot compare for size with their American counterparts. Only one British library, Birmingham, has over 250,000 pictures. There are many smaller collections, ranging from 5,000 to 100,000 but generally, these are underdeveloped either through lack of personnel or because librarians do not think the work involved in organizing illustrations collections, is worth the return. Before a collection can be put into use it should be of a size adequate to answer the initial demands made upon it, and this in turn involves considerable work in selection, mounting, classification and indexing. Pictures are collected from magazines, discarded books, from travel and information departments, museum services and so on. Most of the material is obtained free of cost, but if a balanced collection is to be built up, a systematic programme of purchase of postcards, photographs and prints, is also necessary. Classification is either by alphabetic subject

headings, by Dewey or the Universal Decimal Classification. Collections are used extensively by schoolteachers, designers, advertisers, jewellers, artists, theatrical producers and the general public. They may be housed in the children's library and built up mainly as part of the service to schools, or alternatively, in the reference library as part of the information service.

Finally, whatever the type of library, the successful use of the illustrations collections depends almost entirely upon its indexing, which is virtually as important as the original classification. No bibliographical classification scheme is, in itself, adequate to the arrangement of hundreds of thousands of pictures, nor can it automatically record the many facets of information that a picture may convey. These deficiencies must be made good by painstaking indexing.

Board of Education. *School pictures* (Educational Pamphlets No. 52). H.M.S.O., 1927.

Corbett, E. V. *The illustrations collection*. Grafton, 1941.

Dana, J. C. *The picture collection*. 5th ed. (rev.) by Marcelle Frebault. H. W. Wilson, 1943.

Gibbs-Smith, C. H. 'The Hulton Picture Post Library.' *J. Document.*, 1950.

Ireland, N. O. *The picture file in school, college and public libraries*. F. W. Faxon, 1935.

Nunn, G. W. A. *British sources of photographs and pictures*. Cassell, 1952.

'Special libraries.' *Picture division issue*, 1954, 45, No. 7.

UNESCO. *International directory of photographic archives of works of art*. 2 Vols. 1950-54.

E. V. C.

Illustrator entry A catalogue entry under the name of the illustrator of a book. Where a book consists solely or chiefly of illustrations this entry is the main entry, the illustrator being considered the 'author' in its widest sense. Should the illustrations be secondary in importance to the text the main entry is made under the author of the text, the illustrator entry being an added entry.

Image The deposit of silver or other chemical by which a picture is formed. The latent image is the invisible image formed by the

action of light on the sensitized paper or film. This image becomes visible on developing.

Imperfects (or imperfections) Sheets rejected owing to faults in printing, *e.g.* uneven impression, faulty register.

Imposing surface The flat surface known as the stone but usually of metal, to which type is transferred for arrangement in the chase.

Imposition The laying-down of type in pages as required for printing in the correct sequence.

Impression 1. The whole number of copies of a work printed at one time from one setting of type. Several such impressions may be taken in one edition, either from type or stereo plates, a new edition only arising if substantial alterations are made in text or the imposition of pages is changed. 2. Of engravings, the print taken from the engraved plate by means of the special engraving press (*see also STATE*).

Impression (binding) The effect produced by blocking or tooling a design or lettering on the cover of a volume.

Impression cylinder In an offset printing press the roller which presses the paper into contact with the blanket cylinder.

Imprimatur The statement, found in certain books, that licence has been granted by a secular or religious authority for the publication of the book. More commonly found in publications of earlier centuries when the activities of the press were more strictly confined by crown, state and clerical authority, but still occurring, often as a statement by a religious authority that a work does not contravene its doctrines.

Imprint 1. The place of publication of a book, publisher's and/or printer's name, and publication date, ordinarily printed at the foot of the title-page of a modern book. Before the separation of the businesses of printing and publishing the term applied only to the printer's name and place of business, normally forming part of the colophon. The printer's name must be given in all books printed in the United Kingdom (2 and 3 Vict. c. 12).

2. That part of a catalogue entry giving the publication details as follows:

- (a) Place of publication.
- (b) Publisher's name.
- (c) Publication date.

For example, London, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1948.

Imprint (binding) 1. The name of the owner of a book as stamped on the binding. 2. The name of the publisher as stamped on the publisher's binding, usually at the tail on the spine.

Imprint date The year of publication as specified on the title-page or publisher's statement. Does not necessarily give the actual date of publication owing to the trade custom of pre-dating, *e.g.* autumn books.

In boards A method in binding (only in the 'extra' style) in which the book is cut or trimmed by the plough after the boards have been laced on. Short for 'cut in boards.'

In press A book in actual process of being printed.

In print Available from the publisher's stock.

In progress A term used by cataloguers to indicate that a serial publication or set is incomplete, subsequent volumes or parts having not yet been issued by the publisher. The words 'In progress' are often added, as a note, to the catalogue entry.

In quires A book still in folded sheets, not stitched or bound. Also 'in sheets,' or 'in signatures.' 'In quires' is preferred because of its connotations that the sheets have been folded. The traditional style in which books were marketed until the introduction of publisher's casing or binding in the early 19th century.

In sheets A book, with printed sheets not folded, or with printed sheets folded but not stitched or bound. For latter state 'In quires' is preferred.

In slip Matter set in type and having had a proof pulled, but not yet made into pages.

In the trade Issued by and obtainable from regular publishing firms rather than from government or private presses (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

INCIPIT

Incipit 'Here begins.' The opening words of a medieval manuscript or an early printed book, or of one of its divisions; if at the beginning, often introducing name of the author and title of the work, and sometimes called 'title caption' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Income tax See RATES AND TAXES.

Incut notes Notes let into the text as contrasted with those printed in the margin.

Indent To set back a line by a space or more in order to mark, e.g. a paragraph.

Indentation The individual distances from the left edge of a catalogue card at which the various lines of heading and description begin. On a standard ruled card the first indentation (outer or author) is at the first vertical line from the left, the second indentation (inner, title or paragraph) is at the second vertical line, and the third as far to the right of the second as the second is from the first. The same proportions are generally preserved on unruled cards, i.e. 9, 13 and 17 typewriter spaces.

The purpose of indentation is to differentiate and emphasize the various groups of information.

Indenture A document drawn up in duplicate and divided so as to leave a tooth-like edge on each part (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Independent Applied to books or pamphlets published separately, subsequently having been bound together, such consolidation not being part of the publisher's work or intention.

Index tab A device for quick reference; usually a small piece of paper, card or fabric attached to the fore-edge of a leaf.

Indexing of books and periodicals The tendency to index books and periodicals has always existed, but in most cases what has been produced has proved inadequate for the purpose. That this is so can easily be tested by selecting a number of passages and testing how many of them can be found entered under appropriate headings in the index. The index has taken various forms at different times: not all of these are readily recognizable as types of

index though they are undoubtedly intended to fulfil that function. Thus the chapter headings in early books and manuscripts, the illuminated initials (particularly those which illustrate relevant scenes in the text), and the lists of contents all played their part in enabling readers to find their way quickly about the books they used. The development of contents lists was especially favoured as a means of quick reference and, for instance, in 18th century volumes of the Statutes these lists ran to several pages of great detail. Even earlier examples are known: thus a 1640 book on arithmetic and geometry has a 14-page *Index capitum* in which the chapter headings and those of the sections of this 440-page volume are set out in the order of the text. A 1635 book on theological matters had an alphabetical *Index rerum et verborum*, but the alphabetizing is only correct to the first four letters of each word, though such words as *in*, *non*, *bene*, *ad*, etc., are ignored when used initially. Another system which proved very popular was the use of inset—or even marginal—paragraph headings and, even after the coming of the modern alphabetical index, this feature has survived in some works with exceptionally long chapters.

The evolution of the alphabetical index has been slow to reach any effective form: at first the tendency was to index names and occurrences rather than ideas which, of course, are more difficult to define. Also the concept of the choice of the significant word for entry came very late, just as the system of ignoring definite and indefinite articles as entry words has yet to be universally accepted.

The contemporary aim in indexing is to ensure that everything which can possibly be regarded as useful is indexed if space allows. Thus a modern book may well include index entries for illustrations, matters mentioned in forewords and appendices, etc. In the case of periodicals it is usual to omit advertisements, brief news paragraphs and such features as minor correspondence. The ideal is to make entries not only for proper names, places, events and other easily-identifiable points of this type, but also for subjects and ideas treated in the text. This is one of the most difficult aspects of indexing and is therefore one which is most often shirked: thus many periodicals issue so-called indexes which are nothing more

than simple contents-lists rearranged in alphabetical order. Others purport to provide sound indexes but in actual fact ignore almost everything but proper names: a philosophical idea, a spiritual development or a difficult technical process will be omitted. Indexing of this kind is rife to-day and costs mankind a vast amount of time and money wasted in trying to trace material which has not been indexed.

The standard index entry describes its subject accurately, briefly and under the initial heading where the majority of people seeking it will most naturally look. Against this heading appears all the page references where information on the subject is to be found; if there are many of these, they are subdivided according to period, aspect or evolution, so that the right place can be found without delay, e.g.:

Argument: at an end when it comes to calling names, ii. 37; compared with testimony, iv. 281-2, 531; effect of getting the better of people in, ii. 474; introducing one's opponent puts an end to, ii. 475.

or

Wales (see also England and Wales and Gt. Britain)

area and population, 57-63
births, deaths, marriages, 65
education, 70
justice, 74
language, 58
local government, 54
poor relief, 83
religion, 66
university, 70

The latter example demonstrates the relative index form which is especially suited for narrow columns and is particularly clear, the main drawback being that it is somewhat wasteful of space. It also shows the use of references which are an essential part of the well-constructed index.

The question of whether entries should be arranged 'word by word' or 'letter-by-letter'—on which index-makers are fairly equally divided, is similar to that for catalogues.

Even now the average index is only approximate in its references: few indexes refer to more than the page, though some encyclopaedias refer to an approximate position on the

page, and concordances and edited texts usually refer to numbered lines. Atlases are more efficient in this since they give references to both latitude and longitude. The numbering of paragraphs is occasionally used as an aid, but this rarely occurs outside scientific and technical works.

No speedy method has been discovered by which indexes can be constructed: each indexer has his favourite method, and it is not possible to say that one of these is best in all circumstances. Making the index entries on slips or thin cards is probably the most popular, the slips being 5×3 in. although many indexers prefer larger slips (8×5 in.) or long narrow slips (8×2 in.). A separate slip is made for each heading, references are entered on them and, when the indexing is completed, the slips are sorted into alphabetical order and the entries edited: this involves the amalgamation of entries under headings, the elimination of inconsistencies and the checking of references and cross-references. A good index is the complete analysis of the book, in which each entry is related to similar subjects, the evolution of thought is properly demonstrated, and no significant idea or fact is left unmentioned. Other systems of indexing include making entries on sheets of perforated paper, the strips being subsequently separated and treated as above: this method is particularly suitable for typewritten entries. Some indexers use gummed strips of paper which can be sorted and mounted in correct order on backing sheets, thus eliminating the necessity for re-typing.

The future of indexing can clearly be seen in the vast indexes of the contents of periodicals issued by the H. W. Wilson Company of New York, in the fundamental ideas on which the Rapid Selector is based and in those which control the punched cards systems. Speed and accuracy of identification are demanded from the modern index, and traditional forms are not adequate to this task.

Wheatley, H. B. *What is an index?* 2nd ed., 1879. *How to make an index.* 1902.

Carey, G. V. *Making an index.* 1951.

Collison, R. L. *Indexes and indexing.* 1951.

Weeks, B. M. *How to file and index.* Rev. ed., New York, 1951.

INDIA PAPER

Progressive indexing and filing. 5th ed. New York, Remington Rand, 1950.

Taube, M. *Studies in co-ordinate indexing*. New York, Documentation Inc., 1953.

Spiker, S. *Indexing your book*. University of Wisconsin Press, 1954.

R.L.C.

India paper A strong, very thin opaque paper made in India or Japan to resemble oriental paper; used for Bibles and some reference books, also known as 'Bible paper.' A particularly fine India or Bible paper is made for the Oxford University Press at the Wolvercote Mills.

India proof A proof of an engraving taken by the artist on fine or India paper. Sometimes erroneously applied to the whole first edition.

India proof paper See CHINESE PAPER.

Indicator A frame which indicated the numbers of books 'in' and 'out' in a closed access library. The most popular type was that designed by Albert Cotgreave in 1877. Brown, J. D. 'The history and description of library charging systems.' Pt. II. Indicators. *Libr. World 1899-1900*, 2, 113- (in serial form).

Individual entry The entry of a book, in a catalogue, under the name of a person or a place as subject heading, e.g. a history of France under *France* rather than *History*, or a life of Gladstone under *Gladstone* rather than *Biography*.

Infection The Public Health Act, 1936, provides that a person who knows that he is suffering from a notifiable disease shall not take any book or cause any book to be taken for his use, or use any book taken from a public library. Neither shall he permit any book which has been taken from a public library, and is under his control, to be used by any person whom he knows to be suffering from a notifiable disease. He must not return to any public library a book which he knows to have been exposed to infection, or permit any such book which is under his control to be so returned but must give notice to the local authority (or in the case of a county library to

the county council) that the book has been so exposed. The penalty for contravention of these provisions is a fine up to £5.

In London the relevant Act is the Public Health (London) Act, 1936. Although it does not specifically refer to library books, it contains adequate safeguards regarding notification of diseases, disinfection of articles, cleansing of premises and the exposure of infected persons and things. A similar penalty of £5 is imposed for contravention of the Act.

Infected books are either destroyed or disinfected by the Public Health Department and returned to the library. The cost of replacement of destroyed books is sometimes borne by the library and sometimes by the Public Health Department, the practice varies throughout the country.

Under both Acts referred to it is an offence for a person, knowing himself to be suffering from a notifiable disease, to expose other persons to infection by his presence or conduct in any street or public place.

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

Lumley's public health, 11th ed., 5 vols., 1939-47.

A.R.H.

Inferior letters or figures Small letters or figures cast on type bodies in such a way that they print below the level of lower case letters or figures. Used especially in mathematical texts.

Infima species See PREDICABLES.

Information entry See GENERAL REFERENCE.

Information file 1. A file containing pamphlets and other material useful for miscellaneous information, arranged for ready reference. 2. A card file of reference to sources of information on various topics (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Initial letters Large upper case letters often decorative, used at the beginning of a work and sometimes at the chapter head. Initials in colour were at first stamped by hand, but printed coloured letters were introduced by Schöffer as early as 1467. Much of the appearance of the printed page depends on the skill

with which initials are mortised into the text (see also **FACTOTEM**).

Inlaid 1. Inset in a border or frame of paper, the over-lapping edges first having been shaved thin in order to make the resultant sheet of uniform thickness. (A remargined leaf is not necessarily inlaid.) 2. In 'extra' binding, a leather binding in which the cover has had another colour or kind of leather set in. Also known as 'onlaid.'

Inlay 1. A picture or decoration inserted in a book cover by inlaying (see also **ONLAY**).

2. A piece of graphic material, like a manuscript or a letter, mounted in a cutout frame of paper so that both sides can be seen.

Inner forme Those pages of type which fall on the inside of the sheet when folded, and which are arranged in one forme for printing.

Inner margin See **BACK MARGIN**.

Inset A smaller map or illustration within the borders of a larger one. An inset map, being a map within a map, should not be confused with a continuation of a larger map printed within the same border.

Inside margin See **BACK MARGIN**.

Intaglio printing A method contrasted with printing from type in which the surface stands in relief. In intaglio printing the design of the illustration is incised into the metal or other plate, and the lines or dots are filled with ink, which must be raised by specially strong pressure, in excess of the ordinary press. Examples of such printing are the gravure processes, etching and copper plate engraving.

Intension (classification) 'The internal quantity or content of a notion or concept, the sum of the attributes contained in it; the number of qualities connoted by a term.' [O.E.D.] As distinguished from extension.

Interlacing Ornamentation composed of bands or lines woven together in geometric patterns and curves.

Interleaving Placing sheets of paper between the pages of a book. This paper is usually

of a type different from that used in the text, e.g. writing paper, tissue, blotting paper, etc.

Interlinear 1. Between the lines of a text.
2. A text with subsidiary matter or translation written or printed between the lines of the main matter.

International Federation for Documentation (Fédération Internationale de Documentation) (F.I.D.) The 'Institut International de Bibliographie' (I.I.B.) predecessor of the present F.I.D. was founded in 1895 by Henri LaFontaine and Paul Otlet, both lawyers (one a politician, and the other a barrister) in Brussels. Both were internationalists and pacifists and moreover may be considered as modern 'encyclopedists' conscious of the unity of knowledge and searching for the synthesis of the totality of sciences.

They wanted to create a comprehensive world bibliography on cards. For this 'universal repertory' they wanted a standard classification in order to classify the bibliographic material according to subject matter, and equally they wanted to standardize the size of the cards. For the first purpose they chose the decimal classification of Melvil Dewey and expanded it not only in so far as the scientific contents are concerned, but also with a view to the theory of classification so that the 'Classification Décimale Universelle' (C.D.U., U.D.C.) was developed as the first poly-dimensional classification. In introducing the 'colon' as classification symbol their classification was at the same time the first colon classification. On the suggestion of Henry Field (the founder of the Concilium Bibliographicum in Zurich) they adopted the American postcard format as standard size (now well-known as the international bibliographical card). They considered the 'Classification Décimale Universelle' not directly for general standardized use but as a main tool for their repertory. The first edition of the classification was therefore called *Manuel du Répertoire Bibliographique Universel*. It appeared in 1905.

The I.I.B. also treated other problems of bibliography and librarianship, e.g. an attempt

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION FOR DOCUMENTATION

was made to standardize cataloguing rules. In 1905, the I.L.B. published a proposal of Goldschmidt and Otlet to make use of microfilm (the invention of Dagron in 1870) for library and documentary reproduction purposes (*le livre microphotique*).

Various congresses were organized by the I.L.B., which was organized as an association of individuals supported by the Office International de Bibliographie (being an institution founded by the Belgian Government).

In 1905 Zaalberg (Zaandam, Holland) applied the U.D.C. to the classification of archives and written records. This made the word 'bibliography' less appropriate in the circumscription of the International Institute but only in 1931 was the word 'documentation' accepted by the Institute in its name at its 10th Conference at The Hague. Hence the name was Institut International de Documentation. The word documentation was then defined as the collection, classifying and distribution of records of any kind. In a more strict sense the word documentation indicated the methods and means for rendering the scientific contents of a document accessible to the user, as opposed to librarianship being the management of collections of books, periodicals and other printed documents.

The modification of the name in 1931 was not the only change in the character of the I.L.B. After the First World War the I.L.B. got into serious difficulties mainly of pecuniary character so that the world card catalogue of 14,000,000 cards had to be stopped. F. Donker Duyvis (Holland) suggested to transform the association of individual persons into a federation of institutions and conformly the statutes were recast in 1924 so that the I.L.B. acquired a federative character consisting in the beginning of five national members and three international members. Explicitly, this modification came to expression in the name of the organization which since 1938 is called the 'International Federation for Documentation.' In its present form members of the federation are national institutions or associations which act as national members (22) and the representatives of which form together the Council of the F.I.D. Associate (31) and corresponding (14) members are admitted and

also international associations or specialized groups.

Conferences or congresses were held in the following years: 1895, 1897, 1900, 1908, 1920, 1924, 1928, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1935, 1938, 1939, 1946, 1947, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954.

Committees have been established on Classification (in general and in special fields), Bibliography and abstracting, Information services, Technical means of documentation, Mechanical selection and Training of documentalists.

Periodicals issued are the quarterly *Review of Documentation*, the monthly *Informations F.I.D.* and the half-yearly *Extensions and Corrections to the U.D.C.* (Universal Decimal Classification).

Complete editions of the U.D.C. are issued or prepared in English, French, German, Japanese, Portuguese and Spanish.

Official abridged and special editions of the U.D.C. have been published in the following languages: Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Polish, Portuguese, Rumanian, Russian, Spanish, Swedish, Czech. A trilingual standard abridged edition in English-French-German appeared in 1955.

Various studies on documentation have been published by the F.I.D. The most important of these with the aid of Unesco: *Index Bibliographicus; Manual on document reproduction and selection; Directory of photocopying and microcopying services.*

Also a number of smaller pamphlets and booklets.

Since 1938 the central office of the F.I.D. is in The Hague, 6 Willem Witsenplein.

F.I.D.

International Federation of Library Associations (I.F.L.A.) At the International conference of Librarians and Book Lovers, held in Prague in June-July, 1926, the question of setting up an international committee which should represent the various national library associations was considered of topical interest and presented in a communication of the delegate of the French Library Association, M. Henriot. His proposal was unanimously adopted.

On the occasion of the 50th Anniversary

Conference of the American Library Association held in Atlantic City in October, 1926, an international Committee recommended to the A.L.A. to take the initiative and to write the delegates authorized to study the creation of an International Library Committee to Edinburgh the following year on the occasion of the 50th Anniversary Conference of the (British) Library Association. This was held in September, 1927, and a section dealing with international co-operation of libraries studied the opinions expressed by the official delegates of the national associations. As a result the 'International Library and Bibliographical Committee' was thus constituted.

Its first meeting was convened by its president, Mr. I. Collijn, in Rome in March, 1928. The president reported that 14 national associations had signed official letters of adhesion and that the Committee was thus regularly constituted. It accepted the invitation of the Italian delegation to hold an international Congress in Italy in 1929. A second full meeting of the Committee was held in Rome, Florence and Venice in June, 1929. M. Sevensma, librarian of the League of Nations, accepted his nomination as Permanent Secretary of the International Federation. The draft-Statutes were approved and accepted by the General Assembly of the Congress held in Venice. Some modifications were introduced at the sessions at Stockholm in 1930 and Copenhagen in 1932.

In the course of the years the figure of members went up from 14 countries in 1929 to 57 members in 37 countries in 1955.

The Congress in Italy was held in Rome, Florence and Venice from June 15-30, 1929. The proceedings were published under the auspices of the Italian local committee in six volumes *Atti del primo Congresso Mondiale delle biblioteche e di bibliografia* (1932).

The Congress in Spain was held from May 20-30, 1934, in Madrid and Barcelona. The *Actas y Trabajos* were prepared jointly by the secretariat of I.F.L.A. and the local Spanish committee. The composition having disappeared for a large part during the civil war in Spain only Volume III and Volumes I-II combined were published in 1936 and 1949. The remaining reports are deposited in the I.F.L.A. archives.

The Committee of the International Federation (International Library Committee until 1952 and I.F.L.A. Council as from 1953) met after its preparatory meetings annually with the exception of the war years.

The proceedings of these sessions have been published in 19 volumes. Volumes I-VIII are out of print. Volumes VI, XI and XVI contain the cumulative indexes of the matters dealt with in the respective sessions. The other publications of the Federation are limited to four editions of the Repertoire of its member associations. A 5th edition is in preparation (1955).

These publications are distributed to the member associations and on sale at Martinus Nijhoff at the Hague.

The communications of the Board to the member associations are from 1953 on published as a separate chapter in the international library periodical *Libri*.

The activities of the Federation are performed by the following committees:

1. Parliamentary and administrative libraries.
2. Union Catalogues.
3. Uniform cataloguing rules.
4. International loans.
5. Periodicals and serial publications.
6. Study abroad and exchange of librarians.
7. Exchange of publications.
8. Hospital libraries.
9. Conservation, cataloguing, reproduction and exhibition of rare and precious books and documents.
10. Statistics.

A section deals with Public Libraries.

Another section deals with the problems of the National and University Libraries.

Every two years a subject is published for the competition of the Sevensma prize of 1,000 Swiss francs. In the past, three essays have been awarded this prize.

Secretariat:

University Library, Leiden (Holland) and
Library of the United Nations, Geneva.

T. P. S.

Intertype A composing machine first manufactured in 1912 by International Typesetting Machine Co., which allows the addition of

INTRODUCTION

standardized improvements or other parts as necessary. It is claimed that obsolescence is thus avoided, and that the machine is capable of any kind of composition work that may be demanded.

Introduction A preliminary note, usually following the table of contents, presenting a general background to the subject of the book and discussing its treatment in the book. Sometimes the introduction occurs as the first chapter, or may be written by a person other than the author. In the latter case, since the introduction may have a distinct value apart from the book itself, added entry may be made in the catalogue under the writer of the introduction.

Introduction date The date of a book as given at the beginning or at the end of the introduction.

Inverted heading The heading of a catalogue entry with the natural order of words transposed, e.g. 1. Chemistry, Organic. 2. Agriculture, Ministry of.

Inversion of headings is normally made when some word other than the first is decidedly more significant and likely to be sought by enquirers. Inversion of compound subject headings is also frequently adopted by small libraries in order to bring related aspects of a subject together, and for the fact that the subsequent grouping in the catalogue frequently differs from the classified arrangement of the books on the shelves.

Inverted title The division of a book's title into two sections and their transposition in order to bring a leading word to the front, as heading, e.g.;

Green Friars, The early history and charges of the Order of.

Island stack See FLOOR CASE.

Issue (edition, etc.) Specifically, a distinct group of copies of an edition, distinguished from the rest by more or less slight but well-defined variations in the printed matter. Different issues are those in which intentional changes have been made without resetting the type for the whole work. Such issues may be the result of (a) the distribution of the sheets of a single impression among two or more publishers, those copies issued by each being distinguished by different imprint or title-page and possibly different preliminary matter; (b) the issue of the sheets of an existing impression with a new or changed title-page, preface, notes or in a different number of volumes, etc., or (c) a new impression for which revisions have been incorporated in the original type or plates, e.g. a 'revised' (or corrected) impression (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Issue (loan methods) The number of books loaned from a library in a stated period. Also used to refer to the cumulated charges forming the filed record of loans.

Issue (old maps) The number of impressions (copies) made at a given time without any change being made in the plate (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Italic A condensed type designed by Griffo for Aldus and first used in 1501. Based on the contemporary form of handwriting used in Italian chancelleries, it was first used with roman upper case letters characteristically set off a space. In Italy the type is usually called *Aldino*; beyond Italy, *Italic*. In modern printing, Italic faces (indicated in MS. by a single underlining) are generally used for prefaces or for the purpose of emphasis (see also SWASH LETTER).

J

Jacket A loose wrap-round cover used to protect the binding. Also called dust-cover or wrapper.

Japanese paper See JAPANESE TISSUE.

Japanese tissue A very thin, strong, transparent paper used for artists' proofs of engravings.

Japanese vellum An extremely costly, strong hand-made Japanese paper with a firm glossy surface and a creamy tint, made from the inner bark of the mulberry tree. Will not stand erasure and must be handled carefully; much used for diplomas, etc.

Japon vellum A substitute for Japanese vellum.

Jast, Louis Stanley (1868-1944). Librarian of Peterborough, of Croydon, and finally of Manchester from 1920-31, is credited with numerous innovations in public library practice, ranging from his early advocacy of the *Decimal Classification* for municipal libraries to the introduction of titled lower shelves. At Croydon he organized lectures, readings and concerts in connection with the libraries, and transplanted this cultural conception of the public library's work to Manchester, where he also opened the first municipal technical library in 1922, had the entire reference library recatalogued on cards, introduced a new style of illustrated annual report, initiated the first mobile library service in the country using converted buses and dealing directly with the public in 1931, and shaped the Manchester Central Library building in accordance with the practical. Unexperimental ideas of his later days are expressed in his *The planning of a great library*, 1927. G.J.

Jenson, Nicolas (1400?-c. 1481). A French craftsman who is supposed to have been commissioned by Charles VII to learn printing in Venice for introduction into France. Jenson remained at Venice, however, and between 1465-75 printed in his own establishment. His roman types are particularly celebrated,

and have been regarded as the model from which all subsequent roman letters have derived. Morris was a great admirer of the so-called Golden Type, which he imitated. Jenson's books are frequently marred by poor presswork and his types are by no means perfectly cast, or uniformly black in printing. These last two faults are not always regarded as blemishes.

Job press A small hand press of the platen type on which are printed small items such as handbills.

Job printer A printer who deals in small commercial work, e.g. forms and stationery, rather than bookwork.

Joined hand Handwriting with connected letters.

Joint author A person who writes a book in collaboration with one or more associates, the portion written by each not usually being specified (*A.A. Code*).

Joint authorship Applied in cataloguing to those cases where a book is the joint production of two or more authors writing in collaboration, the parts written by each not being specified. Works of joint authorship are entered by the chief catalogue codes under the author whose name appears first on the title-page, with references or added entries for the second and following authors (*i.e.* joint authors).

Joint catalogue One containing entries for the books in two or more libraries (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Justification 1. The equal and exact spacing of words and letters in a line, achieved in hand composition by careful selection of spaces, but an automatic process in machine composition. Electric typewriters are now on the market which permit justification of typewritten matter. 2. Making even the margins of the text by the insertion of spaces in the line. A practice not known to the earliest printers.

K

Keep standing Instruction to the printer not to disperse the type of a book in anticipation of a new impression being necessary.

Keepsake 1. A type of lavishly printed and ornately bound gift book, often composed of poetry, issued annually in the first half of the 19th century. 2. Printed mementoes issued by clubs or organizations for special occasions (*Book, Gloss.*).

Weitenkampf, F. 'The keep-sake in nineteenth century art.' *Boston Publ. Libr. Quart.*, 1952, 4, No. 139, 148.

Kelley, Grace O. See CLASSIFICATION BROAD.

Kelmscott Press (1891-98) A private press at Hammersmith, London, founded and directed by William Morris from 1891 to his death in 1896. The books issued from it were exceptional examples of bookmaking, and their beauty of execution and harmony of design were the result of exacting study. The paper and ink were especially made for the books. Three founts of type designed, by Morris and cut by E. P. Prince, the Golden (1890), Troy (1891), and Chaucer (1892), the latter used in a magnificent folio edition of Chaucer (1896) for which E. Burne-Jones designed woodcut illustrations. After Morris's death in 1896 the Press completed outstanding work, and ceased operation, the material being deposited in the British Museum.

Kennedy, John Member of Dundee Library Committee, invented in 1875 an improved form of 'indicator' using sloping slots instead of horizontal, in which the reader's ticket wholly covered the book call number instead of appearing beside it, so saving considerable space in a large library. With readers' tickets coloured differently at each end and on each

side, the use of four different colours, each representing a different week, allowed rapid identification of the overdue books on loan. The Morgan indicator displayed at the 1877 international conference was, it was alleged, a piratical commercial adaptation of this system. Maclauchlan, John. *Description and method of working Kennedy's indicator*. . . Dundee, 1879.

G.J.

Kenyon report See LIBRARY CO-OPERATION.

Kern Part of a letter which extends over the edge of the body, resting on the shoulder of the next letter.

Kettle stitch A stitch used in book sewing by means of which each signature is firmly united to the preceding one at head and tail. Also called 'chain stitch.'

Key The block or forme in letterpress printing, or the plate in lithography giving the black outlines as guide to the position of the other colours.

Killing See DISTRIBUTION OF TYPE.

Knowledge classification The classification of abstract ideas, as opposed to bibliographical classification, the arrangement of physical entities such as books, pamphlets, etc.

Kraft paper A strong brown paper used especially for wrapping purposes, but may be treated for uses as varied as paper towels (when bleached) and roofing felts. Is frequently strengthened with hessian or tar to provide waterproof wrapping of great strength.

Kursiv See CURSIVE.

L

L sheet A sheet of paper of letter size, usually 8 x 11 in.

Lacing-in In hand-binding, in the 'extra' style, the method of attaching boards to the sewing cards, which are laced through holes in the boards.

Laid paper Paper which shows close thin parallel wire marks, 'laid lines' and, 'cross lines' chain marks due to its manufacture on a mould in which the wires are laid side by side rather than woven. In machine-made paper these marks are impressed by the dandy.

Lamination A method of preserving old and frail papers by placing the sheet between two layers of a transparent thermo-plastic material which when subject to heat under pressure makes an effective seal against atmospheric conditions.

Land See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Language subdivision May be interpreted in two ways.

(a) Subdivision of a subject according to the language in which it is written.

(b) Subdivision of a language division in the philological class of a classification scheme.

See also CLASSIFICATION and under individual schemes.

Large paper copy (or edition) A copy or an edition of a book printed on paper of extra size sometimes of superior quality allowing wide margins, but with letterpress the same as in the regular edition.

Law See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Lay edges The edges of a sheet of paper which are laid against the front and side lay gauges of a printing or folding machine. The front lay edge is the 'gripper edge.'

Layout The preparation of copy for translation into type. Indications of the style and the position of the blocks.

Le Gascon style Modified fanfare bindings of the early 17th century, in which the strap-work is retained, the enclosed spaces differentiated by inlaid leather of different colours, and the sprays lighter. Fine dotted scrolls are frequently enclosed in the geometrical compartments and often extend into lines and curves of remarkable lustre and elegance (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Leaders Dots, dashes or other signs across a page from the initial word to the final word, filling the gaps between any two words, as in tabulations or forms.

Leading line The top-most horizontal line on a standard ruled catalogue card; the line on which the author heading begins.

Leads Strips of lead less than type height, used for spacing out lines. Made in given point sizes, e.g. thin lead, 1, 1½ point; middle, 2 point; thick, 3 point.

Leaf One of the single units into which the original sheet is folded and cut to form a section of a book. A leaf consists of two pages, one on each side.

Leaflet 1. In a limited sense, a publication of from two to four pages printed on a small sheet folded once, but not stitched or bound, the pages following in the same sequence as in a book. 2. In a broader sense, a small thin pamphlet (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Leather 'There is nothing like leather.' So our fathers sometimes said, but so our grandfathers undoubtedly said. Since then, however, there has been a period when the reliability and durability of bookbinding leather was very much questioned.

The public at large may only have been dimly aware that leather bound books decayed after a surprisingly short time, but those commercially interested in it, especially librarians, were keenly aware of the fact. If we go back a hundred years, decay of bookbinding leather was probably something of an

LEATHER

unusual phenomenon, and in fact the average leather bound book produced 100 years ago even today shows little decay of the leather, and in some cases none at all.

Around 1880-90 it began to be realized that the leather then being used was unreliable. Even first-class moroccos, after only a few years on the shelf, too often began to look rusty and in a few years powdered away to dust, and yet it appeared that the skins came from sound animals, had been tanned with the approved materials and treated throughout in the approved manner. It can be readily imagined that there was considerable confusion in ascertaining precise facts, as the decay might not start for six or seven years, by which time, although the binder could be traced readily enough, it was difficult to go back and track up the exact history of the leather used from the time the skin left the animal's carcass. The librarian naturally said that if it was not the fault of the leather manufacturer, it was the fault of the binder, who perhaps had rubbed on oxalic acid to brighten the colour of the leather, or some other deleterious substance. Nobody, however, could prove anything. Meanwhile the unsightly decay attacked more and more books and in some libraries more than others.

This state of affairs could lead to a lot of wishful thinking, and many a man would say that he had a secret and could tell by touch or smell or by preternatural means whether a leather would last or whether it was prone to decay. Such soothsayers were never proved wrong because too much time elapsed between their prophecy and the result, and it must have been a tempting proposition to a binder or a leather merchant to set himself up as a witch doctor on this subject. However, in 1900, the matter had become of such importance that the Royal Society of Arts set up a committee under the chairmanship of Viscount Cobham to enquire into the whole matter, and their principal finding was that decayed leathers held within their fibres a considerable quantity of sulphuric acid. Now, in 1880 or thereabouts the use of aniline dyes for colouring leather came into general use. These gave much brighter colours—emerald greens, vivid scarlets, etc.—all of which had been impossible with the use of the old vegetable

dyes, but the leather manufacturers had to bleach their skins to near white to achieve these brilliant colours, and sulphuric acid was used in the process—in fact some thought the more acid, the brighter the colour! The connection of ideas was irresistible; the leather manufacturers were not sufficiently careful in washing the leather after the sulphuric acid bath, and thus left some in permanently. It thus appeared the problem had been solved, and henceforth leather which had been tested and was stamped 'Acid Free' was the standard specification for all libraries and all important publications, and at least one very large edition of a multi-volume publication was sold under the slogan 'Acid Free Leather.' But what was the result? The result was that although the leather was truly free from acid when it left the binders' hands, the decay of leather continued much as before.

It naturally took some years to discover that 'Acid Free' was a flop, and in 1932-35 another committee was set up at the instigation of the Printing Industry Research Association, and the British Leather Manufacturers Research Association, under the Chairmanship of Lewis G. Kitcat, a London master bookbinder. The first purpose of the committee was to gather and survey all the known evidence in a search for clues on which to formulate new theories for testing, and with the evidence being of a most conflicting nature the enquiry took much the form of a detective thriller in the search for 'Oo dun it?' Books bound from the self-same skins were traced, as to some at the British Museum and others in Wales. The Welsh books were all right, the Museum books were all wrong. Moreover, enquiries abroad showed that it was a world-wide problem. Prominent librarians produced specifics which had been rubbed into books and which they claimed had much retarded decay. Other librarians using the same specifics could note little improvement. Curiously enough, books frequently handled seemed to last better than books which stood on the shelves, leading to a hypothesis that human perspiration had preservative qualities.

The binders were under close examination. Did they use oxalic acid to brighten the leather, or did they not? Had any modern

varnishes of a cellulose or plastic nature been discovered which would solve the difficulty? And so on.

Finally, Mr. R. Faraday Innes, the brilliant scientist attached to the Leather Research Association, propounded a theory which fitted in with all the substantiated clues. The sulphuric acid, he said, which is always found in decayed leather, had been absorbed from the atmosphere and gradually accumulated in the leather, hence the purer the air the longer the life of the leather. This, however, did not explain why leathers of 100 years ago lasted well when the air in the early part of their life was certainly no purer than it is to-day.

The second part of Mr. Innes' theory, however, dealt with this, as he showed that modern methods of manufacturing leather called for more washing in water than had been usual in the time of our great-grandfathers, and the excessive washing removed from the leather certain constituents which had the quality of standing as a buffer between the attacking acid and the leather fibres—and he went further than this. He suggested various innocuous chemicals which could be easily and cheaply incorporated in the leather and which, according to his theory, would effectively take the place of the natural preservative constituents which had been lost. Mr. Innes devised a simple test whereby decay, which under ordinary conditions might take many years, could be produced in the course of a few days. If the leather did not decay under test it would not, according to his theory, decay on the bookshelves, and with his treatment leather did not decay under test. At this stage the matter was brought to the point that if the accelerated decay test was the real equivalent of the test of time the problem was solved, but only time could answer that. In 1932, a carefully organized long term test was put in hand with the co-operation of the British Museum and the National Library of Wales at Aberystwyth. The pure atmosphere of Aberystwyth was selected as a contrast to conditions in London. Some hundreds of books were bound in pairs, one of each pair being in untreated leather and the other in treated leather, and stored in various parts of the British Museum and the Library at Aberystwyth. By these means such variation

of ventilation and atmosphere as exist in the two libraries have come under review.

Twenty-four years have now passed since those books were first placed on the shelves and thus the actual test of time has operated in some measure. Mr. H. J. Plenderleith of the British Museum laboratory has reported that some of the untreated leathers are now showing distinct signs of decay, but in all cases the treated leathers show no sign of deterioration. Thus the sanguine hopes to which the scientific approach to the problem has given rise are being vindicated.

L. G. K.

Leather bound Either fully or partly bound in leather, but always with a leather back.

Lectures Library authorities as such (except Metropolitan boroughs) have no power under the Public Libraries Acts to provide lectures, but many local authorities have secured the necessary permission by means of local Acts of Parliament. Such Acts normally authorize the local authority, as the library authority or otherwise, to provide and maintain lecture rooms and cause lectures to be delivered on educational and other subjects, to make charges for admission, to pay lecturers' fees and to let lecture rooms when not in use. The amount to be expended in any one year is usually limited to sums averaging between £100 and £300. In order to equip lecture rooms it is customary to secure purchasing powers under the local Act so as to provide epidiascopes, cinematographic apparatus and other equipment and fittings. Such items may not be purchased out of library funds, neither will the Minister approve loans for the purpose.

Under a London County Council (General Powers) Act, Metropolitan borough councils have powers as library authorities under the Acts to arrange for the giving of lectures on educational or other subjects and to provide, or make provision for the use of, lecture rooms, to make reasonable charges for admission to lecture and for the use of such rooms when not required for lecture purposes and to incur necessary expenditure.

The wide powers granted under the Education Act, 1944 (s. 7), and the Local Government Act, 1948 (s. 132), are often invoked to

LEDGER CHARGING

permit the giving of lectures. See further under PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW (Provisions).

As to the question of tax liability where lecture rooms are provided or charges made for admission see RATES AND TAXES.

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

Hewitt, A. R. *Summary of public library law*. 3rd ed. (rev.), 1955.

A.R.H.

Ledger charging A method of recording book loans by entering book numbers against borrowers' ticket numbers in adjacent columns.

Legal deposit Legal deposit, copyright deposit, the copy-tax or the delivery of printed copies, as it is severally termed, is a method whereby one or more privileged libraries in a nation, state, province, union or empire regularly receive free copies of all newly published books from the publishers or printers in that region.

A French king, Francis I, originated the idea. By the Montpellier Ordinance of December 28, 1537, every printer and publisher in France, without exception had to send to the Royal Library at Blois a free copy of every newly published book, irrespective of author, subject, cost, size, date or language and whether illustrated or not. A heavy fine and confiscation of the whole edition of a work not deposited was the penalty for non-compliance. The copies became a permanent record of the nation's literary output. After the transfer of the Royal Library to Paris, each successive French monarch took great pride in watching the collection grow by this means.

Legal deposit began in England in 1610 with a private agreement, effected only after 'many rubbes and delaies' and the reputed gift of 'fifty pounds' worth of gold plate, between the University of Oxford (Bodley's Library) and the Stationers' Company. The Stationers were a Chartered Company as early as 1557 and since that date kept registers of all their members' published works.

The effecting of this agreement was therefore an adroit piece of diplomacy worthy of the highest praise, for the Stationers' Company controlled practically all the printing

and publishing trade in England except that of Oxford and Cambridge Universities. But the greatest weakness of the Bodleian agreement was its unofficial character. Unlike the French decree, it was a purely private contract, it had no royal backing and no penalties. In 1637 the Star Chamber decree instituted imprisonment and heavy fines for non-compliance. But the collapse of that dread Council in 1640 caused the agreement to lapse.

The Press Licensing Acts of 1662-92 required three best paper copies of all new books and reprints with additions to be deposited on publication for use by the Royal Library and Oxford and Cambridge Universities. The obligation lasted intermittently till 1695, when it was altered by the 1709 Copyright Act (8 Anne c. 19). This stipulated for nine best edition copies: one for the Royal Library, one each for Oxford and Cambridge, four for the four Scottish Universities, one for Edinburgh's Faculty of Advocates, and one for Sion College, London. An abortive Bill in 1737 tried to increase the nine copies to fourteen, but was dropped.

The Union with Ireland Copyright Act of 1801 (41 Geo. III. c. 107) added two more copies for the Dublin libraries of Trinity College and King's Inn. This obligation persisted in the 1814 Copyright Act (54 Geo. III c. 156). But by the 1836 Act (6 and 7 Will. IV c. 110) six libraries lost their privilege and receive instead a yearly grant divided among them amounting to £3,000. The six libraries were Sion College, the four Scottish Universities and King's Inn, Dublin. The £3,000 is still paid yearly from the Consolidated Fund on satisfactory evidence of booklists and accounts being furnished to the Treasury.

The five libraries retaining their privilege: The British Museum (formerly the Royal Library and transferred to the nation in 1758), the Bodleian, Cambridge University, the Faculty of Advocates and Trinity College, Dublin continued to exert their privilege, reaffirmed by the Imperial Copyright Act of 1842 (5 & 6 Vict. c. 45). But by the Imperial Copyright Act of 1911 (1 & 2 Geo. V c. 46) the National Library of Wales (with certain classes of books excepted) was added, making a total of six depository libraries. This, very

briefly, is the history of legal deposit in Great Britain.

Press laws in force throughout the rest of the world show surprising differences regarding compulsory deposit of books. China and Japan maintain the system under police control for press censorship. In Chile each fiscal attorney and several ministers are allowed free copies of every new book published there. Yugoslavia, Russia and Poland require the deposition before the work is put on sale. The Minister for Industry and Commerce controls legal deposit in Ireland. In Peru the copy delivered by the printer must first be signed by the author or publisher. In Italy omission of the date from a published work is punishable by a fine. In Austria, Columbia, Malta, Rumania and the U.S.A. deposit copies are delivered gratis to the libraries by the postal authorities.

The Library of Congress only gets free copies of newly published books in America, and the power of selection and cataloguing is judiciously exercised. The Bibliothèque Nationale is the repository for all new French books, and it publishes lists of all copyright accessions. Deposit in Italy is shared between the national libraries of Florence and Rome. Each State in Germany enacts its own copyright laws; the Staatsbibliothek in Berlin gets copies of all works published in Prussia, but not in Bavaria or Saxony. Munich's State Library receives Bavarian copies; one is kept, the other is sent to a neighbouring university in the province. Deposit in Scandinavia has some unusual features. The Royal Libraries of Copenhagen and Stockholm specialize in the arts, so copyright copies of religious, scientific and technological works are sent to the universities or to several specializing academies or institutions. The printers, not the publishers, are responsible for delivery of copies of all works printed.

The number of deposit copies demanded by different countries varies astonishingly. In Switzerland legal deposit is voluntary, but 245 continental publishers freely present copies of all new books they issue. Norway, Württemberg (Germany) and Denmark are satisfied with one copy, and even this is sometimes not required unless copyright is sought. France requires one copy from the printer and one

later from the publisher, Poland seven copies, Ireland ten, Portugal seventeen and Rumania fifteen. But the Soviet Republic of Ukraine actually demands fifty or more copies of each new work, rather a partial confiscation than a deposit.

It is truly remarkable how legal deposit, from its origin in the cupidity of a 16th century French monarch has grown into an important bibliographical scheme of almost universal adoption. Yet it would now be extremely difficult (in most cases impossible) satisfactorily to replace by another plan a scheme whereby certain national or privileged libraries are regularly fed with new books at no expense and whereby at least one copy of every worthwhile book is carefully preserved for the use of present-day readers and for its final evaluation by posterity.

Many long, fierce and bitter controversies raged in the past over the alleged injustice of the tax imposed by legal deposit. But most modern publishers concur that, excepting very costly works, the free publicity assured to the deposit copies by the busy copyright libraries is commensurate with and often outweighs the slight burden of the tax.

Canons, H. G. T. *Bibliography of library economy*. 1927.

Esdaile, A. *National libraries of the world*. 1934.

Pafford, J. H. *Library co-operation in Europe*. 1935.

Partridge, R. C. B. *History of the legal deposit of books throughout the British Empire*. 1938.

Shearman and others. *Press laws of foreign countries*. 1926.

R.C.B.P.

Legend See CAPTION.

Lemonnier style A style of book decoration practised by Jean Christophe Henri Lemonnier, who worked for Count Hoym in France in the 18th century. It is characterized by pictorial mosaics of landscapes, bouquets, etc. (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Letter by letter filing A method of filing, in alphabetical order, entries in a list, catalogue or bibliography, the basic principle being that each heading, whether consisting of one word or more, is regarded as one unit.

LETTER-SPACING

Thus the significance of the individual words is disregarded and the whole heading considered as a sequence of letters. Often called the 'all through' method, e.g.

Green acres
Greenbanks
Green fields
Greenford
Green Howards
Greenshank

The same entries filed by the alternative word by word method would appear as follows:

Green acres
Green fields
Green Howards
Greenbanks
Greenford
Greenshank

Letter-spacing Extra spacing between the letters of a word, especially in a running title or title-page.

Lettered proof A proof of an engraving perhaps not in a final state, with the names of the artist, engraver and printer engraved in the margin.

Lettering In binding, the process of marking a cover with title or other distinguishing characters.

Lettering piece A piece of thin leather or other material, blocked or lettered, affixed to a book cover, usually on the spine.

Letterpress 1. Printing from raised type or blocks, as distinct from lithographic printing. 2. The matter produced from relief surfaces, e.g. type. 3. Text as distinct from illustrations.

Lettre de forme, lettre de somme, lettre bâtarde The three general classifications of gothic type-forms as found in the 15th century. The first is the pointed and most formal, used in service books and Bibles, the second is rounder and less formal and the third is a cursive form. They correspond to a similar classification of lettering used for manuscripts, and like those hands, partake of national modifications.

Levant morocco A high-grade leather made from the skin of the Angora goat.

Libellous publications The material part of the cause of action in libel is not the writing but the publication of the libel. (*Hebditch v. Macdlwaine* [1894] 2 Q.B. 58). Actions involving the dissemination of libellous publications have been brought against various commercial houses and one against the British Museum but librarians and library authorities, however, seem to have been free, so far, from litigation of this nature. Cases against commercial houses relate both to the sale and circulation of libellous books and the distribution of periodicals containing libellous matter. In some the plaintiffs have been successful and in others the defendants, each case depending on the particular circumstances involved. The case law is reviewed in the present writer's *Law relating to public libraries*, etc. (Eyre & Spottiswoode), 1947.

In the case of *Martin v. The British Museum* ((1894) 10 T.L.R. 338) the plaintiff complained of the handing to readers in the library of pamphlets containing defamatory matter. The jury found, *inter alia*, that (i) the pamphlets were libels on the plaintiff; (ii) the buying, cataloguing and producing the pamphlets for inspection were done by the defendants in the *bona fide* belief that they were acting in discharge of their statutory powers and duties; and (iii) the defendants were not guilty of negligence. In giving judgment for the defendants the judge said that there was a public duty on the trustees to receive all books sent and to purchase others and that probably influenced the findings of the jury who thought the trustees could not enquire into or know the character of all books asked for or used.

A public librarian has no statutory duty to receive specific books or to purchase others and, it is submitted, the plea of public duty would probably fail should an action similar to that against the British Museum be instituted against him. If, however, such an action should be brought against a librarian or library authority the defence might well be found in the words of Lord Justice Romer in the case of *Vizetelly v. Mudie's Select Library* ([1900] 2 Q.B. 170) who said 'I think that, as regards a person who is not the printer or the first or main publisher of a work which contains a libel, but has only taken, what I

may call, a subordinate part in disseminating it, in considering whether there has been publication of it by him, the particular circumstances under which he disseminated the work must be considered. If he did it in the ordinary way of his business, the nature of the business and the way in which it was conducted must be looked at; and, if he succeeds in showing (i) that he was innocent of any knowledge of the libel contained in the work disseminated by him, (ii) that there was nothing in the work or the circumstances under which it came to him or was disseminated by him which ought or have led him to suppose that it contained a libel, and (iii) that, when the work was disseminated by him, it was not by any negligence on his part that he did not know it contained the libel, then, although the dissemination of the work by him was *prima facie* publication of it, he may nevertheless, on proof of the above mentioned facts, be held not to have published it.' Although this case dealt with dissemination in the course of business it is submitted that the principles of innocent dissemination without negligence propounded by Romer, L. J., might well apply to dissemination other than for the purposes of gain.

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A.R.H.

Librarian See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Librarianship The characteristics and functions of a librarian, as 'scholarship' represents the characteristics of a scholar. Librarianship has been defined as the collection, preservation, organization and use of recorded communications. Till recent times the function of preservation was often stressed at the expense of the use of the records preserved. Hence the Graeco-Latin word *bibliotheca*, and the common terms *keeper*, *curator*, *custos librorum*. Hence also J. W. Clark's great work on the historical aspects of our libraries was entitled *The care of books*. The view of a librarian as a watchdog leads to obvious extravagances. Robert Burton quotes Heinsius, the keeper of the library at Leyden, as saying 'I no sooner

come into the library, but I bolt the door behind me, excluding lust, ambition, avarice, and all such vices, whose nurse is idleness, the mother of ignorance . . . and in the very lap of eternity, amongst so many divine souls, I take my seat, with so lofty a spirit and sweet content that I pity all our great ones and rich men that know not this happiness.' The uneducated librarian who wishes to cloak his ignorance is easily tempted to emulate Heinsius, and the caretaker view of the librarian's duties has fallen into disrepute, greater stress now being placed on the fruitful use of the books than on their safe keeping. This is indeed an inevitable result of the development of research in scientific, historical and other fields since the Restoration. It would, however, be a grave mistake to ignore the need for the careful preservation of records, and the term *keeper* still has important significance, especially in literary, historical and bibliographical fields. The definition quoted above, however, makes allowance for the purpose of the collection as well as its acquisition and preservation, and it is this factor which constitutes the distinction between different types of libraries serving particular fields of knowledge or particular classes of reader. The method of organizing and arranging the collection must, of course, be adapted to the special purpose in view.

Librarianship is now generally recognized as a vocation for which special training is required. Two factors in particular are responsible for this: 1. The widespread establishment of general libraries, usually maintained by local authorities, and 2. The development of libraries serving special purposes of teaching and research in academic, scientific and industrial fields. Expansion has brought greatly increased recruitment and greater complication in the technical methods needed to ensure the economic working of a large library. As a result, simple apprenticeship is no longer in itself an adequate preparation for the new recruit, and the need is felt for a generally recognized system of training and examination which will qualify candidates for technical posts in any library. It is when expansion of this kind takes place that a calling or occupation begins to claim professional status. The Library Association, which is the professional body in Great Britain, was founded in 1878

and incorporated by royal charter in 1898; it now has 12,000 members. One of its most important tasks has been the organization and control of professional examinations, and the maintenance of a professional register of chartered librarians. Full-time training was at first confined to the School of Librarianship at University College, London (founded in 1919). This is now a postgraduate school, offering courses for the two University Diplomas in Librarianship and Archive Administration. In 1945, however, the Library Association sponsored the opening of several library schools attached to local technical colleges, where full-time courses for the Library Association's examination are offered. A substantial number of young librarians are now receiving full-time training, and the proportion is likely to increase. The Library Association's headquarters are at Chaucer House, Malet Place, W.C.1., where there is an important library of librarianship and bibliography, and an active information service.

The subjects covered by the general term 'librarianship' are wide and various. There is a reasoned study of them in R. Irwin's *Librarianship*, 1949, pp. 62-83. There it is argued that all the manifold subjects of study can be grouped under the general heading of bibliography, using the word in its widest sense, and the term 'applied bibliography' is suggested as a useful synonym. If the University of London regulations for the Academic Postgraduate Diploma in Librarianship are consulted, it will be seen that the various aspects of the subject are arranged systematically, to emphasize this point. Four of the six subjects in the syllabus are concerned directly with the bibliography of graphic and printed records (i.e. palaeography, historical bibliography, materials and research in general and special fields, cataloguing and classification). The first subject on the other hand is historical, and the sixth deals with the history and function of special types of libraries. The subject of English literature, which has always formed part of the Library Association syllabus, is omitted. Its presence in the Library Association examination has often been criticized on the score that it belongs to general rather than professional education, and for many librarians

it has little or no relevance. It is now, however, accompanied by a series of alternative papers on the literature and librarianship of other branches of knowledge. It is indeed evident that librarianship may often involve some acquaintance with any field of knowledge with which a given library is particularly concerned. The librarian of a medical library, for example, must have both an interest in and some knowledge of medical science. The librarian with a general training could no doubt quickly learn the minimum necessary, but a man with a deeper interest in medicine than this might well make a more successful librarian, better able to understand the needs of experts using the library and to discuss their problems on equal terms. In other words both technical training and subject knowledge are desirable. In a general library, the value of special subject knowledge is becoming increasingly recognized. Even though schemes for the division of libraries into subject departments may make only limited headway, nevertheless, the assistant with special knowledge has a definite contribution to make both in book selection and in the information service. The young librarian is, therefore, well advised to see that he has not only the technical knowledge required by the L.A. syllabus, but a more than superficial familiarity with at least one field of knowledge in which he has a natural interest. A good university degree in that subject is an obvious advantage, but the same advice can be tendered to all recruits whether graduates or not. Though acquaintance with almost any field of knowledge is usually acceptable, there is always a special demand for candidates with a genuine knowledge of modern languages, or of any branch of science.

The moral of this is that, although the manifold subjects of library science grow more complex every year, librarianship is nevertheless something much greater than the mere sum of these subjects. It shares with certain other vocations (farming and teaching are examples) something indefinable which transforms it from a mere occupation into a way of life. Those in whom the light burns brightly find that their work fills their lives abundantly and brings its own satisfying rewards. The rising tide of administrative work which

often to-day overwhelms the senior librarian and the preoccupation with examinations, salaries and grading which seems inevitable in a closed profession, may sometimes obscure this satisfaction; but a sense of vocation is always the mark of the true librarian.

There has of late been some discussion of the 'philosophy of librarianship.' This high-sounding phrase usually signifies little but the purpose of librarianship. In many cases the purpose of a given library is explicitly defined; this is true wherever the subject field and membership is restricted, as with the libraries of learned societies and academic or scientific institutions. Considerations of purpose mainly arise where there are no such limitations, *i.e.* with non-specialized libraries open to the general public. Broadly there are three possible purposes of a library: teaching, research and entertainment; and these can be achieved either singly or in any combination by any library. In practice, however, the entertainment value of books is only stressed by the general library, and it is in this field that differences of opinion occur. The earlier advocates of the public library stressed its educational value for the humbler reader at the expense of other purposes. Most people to-day on the other hand incline to regard it rather as a public service meeting a public demand. Few librarians would, however, be prepared to base their book-selection merely on public (or popular) demand, if only because a balanced stock could never be achieved by this means. The need for some standard of provision therefore arises, and it is in the determination of this standard that difficulties appear. With books used mainly for teaching and research, all would agree that the standard of quality should be high. Logically, the same standards of excellence should be expected from books used mainly for entertainment, but in this field (i) public demand by strong pressure tends to depress this standard, and (ii) standards of value are more complicated and more uncertain than they are with books used for teaching and research; moreover literary value and entertainment value are inextricably confused. The same problems are found in other services providing public entertainment, such as the radio and the popular press. The result is in

general a compromise between quality and demand. When, however, the demand is heavy and widespread, as with the radio, it will generally be found that standards over the years are gradually relaxed; being based indeed on fashion and convention, they can never become stable. With a service of more limited appeal such as the art gallery, it is on the whole easier to maintain a given standard of quality, than with a service subject to heavy popular pressure. Those who believe that public demand must be the guiding factor, should remember that the term 'demand,' however convenient it may be in the field of economics, is often misleading. Very rarely does it represent a simple and deliberate expression of opinion by a body of readers (or consumers). More often its force is the chance result of many conflicting winds of fancy or preference. The democratic answer to this is to place on the expert the responsibility, not merely of interpreting the general will, but of guiding it when needed into paths of wisdom. The librarian who exercises this responsibility bravely, wisely and temperately, will gain the confidence of his readers, and such public confidence surely is one of the marks of true librarianship.

R.I.

Librarianship, education See EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP and EXAMINATIONS.

Libraries for the blind Library service to the blind has been and is being provided by various agencies in different countries. In some it has become the responsibility of the Churches or of religious Orders and in others of a department of a blind welfare organization with wider responsibilities. Elsewhere Public Libraries have accepted responsibility and in the United States the National Library has itself assumed important supply and co-ordinating functions by establishing a blind literature division in the Library of Congress. If the scope and coverage in Great Britain is unique that is partly due to the fact that substantial contributions were made, during the early stages of development by each of the variant forms of agency. Religious organizations (*e.g.* the S.P.G. and the Catholic Truth Society), blind welfare associations (*e.g.* the National Institute for the Blind and the Leeds

LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND

Incorporated Institution for the blind, deaf and dumb), and Public Libraries (e.g. Nottingham and Cambridge) each built up small stocks of books in Braille and other embossed types. The national supply and co-ordinating functions have been provided by a separate national library, the National Library for the Blind.

The N.L.B. was founded in Hampstead in 1882 as a voluntary association by Miss Arnold and Miss Howden. The library grew and moved to larger premises in Bayswater in 1904. Two years later the still small organization was fortunate in securing the services as Librarian of Ethel Winifred Austin, one of the greatest of all women librarians. From 1906 until her early death, following an operation in 1918, the library made unprecedented progress. The bookstock was greatly expanded and new buildings provided—substantially grant-aided by the C.U.K.T.—in Tufton Street, Westminster. Many of the smaller blind libraries of various kinds transferred their holdings to the N.L.B. which itself opened a Northern Branch in Manchester in 1918, following the transfer to it of the library of the Manchester Blind Aid Society. The Westminster premises were substantially extended and rebuilt between the two World Wars and now extend through from Tufton Street to 35 Great Smith Street, S.W.1. The premises of the Northern Branch at 5 St. John Street, Manchester 3, are being modernized and rebuilt during the period 1955–57. Although there are still a few small provincial libraries of embossed literature, practically all the service to blind readers is now provided by the N.L.B. and the R.N.I.B.

The N.L.B. has a bookstock exceeding 300,000 volumes, covering all the main fields of literature and issues approximately 400,000 volumes each year. (Not more than 15 per cent of books issued are in Moon and the rest in Braille.) Although the N.L.B. acquires copies of a limited number of stereotyped titles published by the R.N.I.B. and the Scottish Braille Press, most of its Braille stock has been transcribed by voluntary workers, trained by the permanent staff and working in their own homes during leisure hours. Their work is proof-read, corrected and bound at the N.L.B. Publishers and

authors generously co-operate by allowing their titles to be transcribed free of cost, by making 'inkprint' copies available and even in some cases by paying part of the cost of production. The N.L.B. and its Northern Branch each consists essentially of a suite of administrative offices, a large bookstack (Braille transcriptions occupy fifteen times as much space and weigh twenty times as much as the original, Moon substantially more) and a book-production department. The service provided is almost entirely postal, the average volume of embossed literature going through the inland post for one penny, while foreign post is free. Some bulk issues are made to schools and institutions for the blind and to Public Libraries.

The N.L.B. is constitutionally a company limited by guarantee but without share capital. It is governed by a Council, working through committees. The Librarian and Director-General is the chief officer and there is a Secretary at Headquarters and a Librarian-in-charge at the Northern Branch. Funds are provided by voluntary donations and subscriptions, legacies, unified collections, dividends on investments, Local Authority grants and a small Government grant.

The R.N.I.B. provides two kinds of library service, through its 'Students' Library' at 224–8 Great Portland Street, W.1. and its library of 'talking books' (run in conjunction with St. Dunstan's) at Alperton, Middlesex. The 'Students' Library' is designed to provide Brailled copies of textbooks, reference books and examination papers, etc. In view of its relatively narrow terms of reference its stock is much smaller than that of the N.L.B. but exceeds 20,000 volumes. The annual issue is of approximately 8,000 volumes.

A 'talking book' is a title read and, at present disc-recorded, although magnetic tape recordings may eventually supersede. The records are played on battery—or mains-operated portable machines at ordinary reading speed or as adjusted by the listener. In order to safeguard the various interests involved, the use of 'talking books' is at present restricted exclusively to the blind but there are very wide possibilities. 4,000 blind listeners (out of an estimated blind population of 100,000 in Great Britain) have machines in

their homes. The records are carried through the post at the same special rate as Braille and Moon volumes (one penny for five pounds).

Clark, R. S. *Books and reading for the blind*. 1950.

Ritchie, J. M. *Concerning the blind*. 1930.

Annual reports and catalogues of the N.L.B. and R.N.L.B.

W.A.M.

Libraries, history The history of the preservation of books and records is perhaps best regarded as one aspect (and a very important aspect) of the history of scholarship. The tradition of scholarship is handed down through the libraries in which its written records are deposited, and the rise or decline of libraries follows closely the rise or decline of learning. Indeed perhaps the best general history of our libraries is to be found in a work such as J. E. Sandys' monumental *History of classical scholarship*. Although most literatures begin with an oral tradition, written records are soon found to be necessary for the transmission of all literary work, whether creative or interpretative and critical; and the survival of such records (particularly in the latter category) must at least suggest the existence of libraries in which they have been preserved. It is noticeable that in the history of literature an outburst of creative activity is commonly followed at a short distance by an active period of library development. Thus the classical age in 5th century Athens was followed late in the 4th century by the Peripatetic library, and in the 3rd century by the great libraries of Alexandria whose prime function was the bibliographical arrangement of the works of the classical age. In Rome the infiltration of Greek literature in the 1st century B.C., and the rapidly expanding Latin literature, produced the great villa libraries that Pliny and Seneca knew, and the state libraries founded by Augustus and Trajan. Similarly the Elizabethan age in England was followed by the great private collections founded in the 17th century and by the literary, historical and scientific research of the Restoration period. The pendulum swings from creation to research and back again, and wherever scholarly research is being carried out, libraries are a necessary corollary. It is worth noting also

that there is a direct connection between literary activity and writing materials. The introduction of abundant supplies of papyrus from Egypt in Athens in the 6th century B.C. was followed by the flood of literary work in the 5th century; the same sequence was repeated in Rome five centuries later. Increased supplies of parchment (especially suited for the more convenient codex form of book) in the first four centuries of our era made possible an abundant output of books, particularly in the field of religion. So also the introduction of paper and printing in the 15th century was succeeded by the literary output of the Elizabethan period.

The history of libraries begins in China, Egypt and Assyria, where collections of records on tablets of baked clay are known to have been associated with temples and royal palaces. The significance of this association is of interest, for it is evidence of the feeling that in an unlettered world knowledge has a mystical power of its own, and that books are in the end more potent than arrow or spear or gun. To say that the pen is mightier than the sword is in effect to say that a great library is a more powerful weapon than a great army; and so indeed it has proved since great libraries existed. When the Goths in their third expedition from the Tauric Chersonese, A.D. 267, penetrated the Aegean and sacked Athens, we are told that they were restrained from setting fire to the libraries by the thought that good scholars made poor soldiers. Montaigne, commenting on this story, argued that the pursuit of knowledge softened and untempered the courage of man. More likely the Gothic invaders paused in awe at sight of the concrete evidence of Greek learning, not venturing to lift a finger at something which seemed utterly mysterious and therefore divine. Certain it is that the association between libraries and religion, universal in the Greek and Roman world, has been continued by the Church through the medieval period and almost to the present time. If to-day the association has in some quarters been relaxed, this is usually because the State claims to replace the Church as the source of divine authority.

The continuous tradition of Western scholarship and libraries begins in Athens with the great research collection formed by

Aristotle for the Lyceum, c. 335 B.C. Here we meet for the first time with the architectural feature which has distinguished all academic and monastic libraries down to the Renaissance and beyond, namely the colonnade or cloister used for reading and conversation, in the absence of the large, well-lit reading rooms which modern architects now provide. The later history of the Peripatetic library is uncertain. There are conflicting stories that Demetrius of Phalerum shipped it to Alexandria, and that Sulla brought it to Rome, c. 83 B.C., where it was dispersed among booksellers. Certain it is however, that it provided the inspiration for the great Museum which Demetrius planned for Ptolemy Soter in Alexandria, his head full of ideas as to how a philosopher-king could organize the scholarship and learning of his kingdom.

The museum was a research college within the palace precincts. It had a common fund provided by the State, a refectory for the research fellows and the usual ambulatory equipped with seats. At its head was a president-priest appointed by the king, and it was divided into faculties, each with its own dean. Attached to it was the library, planned as a great international collection embracing the books of all the countries of the Mediterranean, the Middle East and India, but mainly Greek in spirit and in fact; though one of its notable achievements was the translation of the Septuagint. Our main sources for the work of the library are Strabo, Athenaeus, Epiphanius and the Byzantine authorities Suidas and Tzetzes, together with the Oxyrhynchus fragment 1241. The names of the first half-dozen librarians, and two or three of the departmental heads, are known. The most famous of them, the poet and teacher Callimachus, was in charge of the catalogue. Though only a few brief excerpts from this have been preserved, it survived for several centuries as the standard bibliography of Greek literature, and as a tribute to the painstaking accuracy and encyclopaedic knowledge of its chief editor. In one of his fragments Callimachus wrote, ἀμάρτυρον οὐδὲν αἰεῖω, (I sing nothing unattested)—an admirable motto to this day for the good bibliographer. The main task of the library during the first century of its life was the transcription of texts, their

division into 'books' of appropriate length to suit rolls of a standard size and the introduction of punctuation and accentuation to facilitate their study. Late in the 3rd century B.C. a 'daughter library' was founded in the Serapeum. We have Athonius' description of this magnificent temple, with its library under a great marble staircase at the south end of the colonnaded court; it was destroyed by the Patriarch Theophilus in A.D. 391, but its foundations have survived.

Of the other libraries in the Eastern Mediterranean, the best known is that of Pergamum, which is said to have rivalled the Alexandrian library in importance. Pergamum lay in the centre of a cattle-raising district, and parchment (*charta Pergamena*) may have been used for some of the rolls in preference to Egyptian papyrus. Here also there are architectural remains of the Acropolis and library (see Hansen, *The Attalids of Pergamum*, 1947, pp. 251-3). There is evidence that libraries existed also at the other centres of Greek culture, e.g. Macedonia (where the royal library was plundered by Aemilius Paullus in 168 B.C.), Antioch, Smyrna, Cos and Rhodes. At Athens a library was associated with the university which grew out of the ephebic college in the 3rd century B.C.; and at the beginning of the 2nd century A.D. two state libraries were established by Trajan and Hadrian. The latter is described by Pausanias. Trajan's library is of interest because of an inscription found near by which announces that the library will be open from the first hour to the sixth, and that no book is to be taken from the premises—the only evidence of its kind for Graeco-Roman library regulations.

The Greek literary tradition, which for five centuries or more was sponsored by the Alexandrian Museum, passed in due time to Constantinople. Here the Imperial, Patriarchal and University libraries continued the tradition for a thousand years, producing little that was new and creative, but editing, annotating and re-editing the standard texts, and thus guarding them for the future (except when the urge to epitomize involved the destruction of the original). A wealth of reference works were compiled, all of which point to painstaking research in libraries; the 10th century

biographical and bibliographical dictionary known as Suidas is typical. Our combined debt to the Alexandrian and Byzantine libraries is beyond estimation. In the same period Greek texts (especially Aristotle, Euclid, Ptolemy, Hippocrates and Galen) were being translated into Syriac, and thence later into Arabic; in which language they filtered gradually from the libraries of Samarkand and Bagdad to Egypt and along N. Africa to Cordova and Toledo in Spain. The library at Cordova is said to have numbered 600,000 volumes, 44 of which were occupied by the catalogue, and as many as 70 public libraries were opened in Andalusia.

The outstanding feature of library history in Rome was the development of the private villa libraries. Much of our evidence about these comes from the letters of Cicero and the younger Pliny, but it is plain that they were a common feature of Roman home life from the beginning of the 1st century B.C. to the time of Boethius, and under the Empire they became a fashionable means of displaying one's wealth. There were in addition many state or public libraries in Rome, usually associated with temples. The best known of these were founded by Augustus, Tiberius, Vespasian and Trajan; Trajan's Ulpian Library, which was probably the largest of them, survived till the time of the Sidonius Apollinaris in the 5th century A.D. None of them, however, were comparable with the Alexandrian libraries, and no scholars of note were associated with them. There is no evidence that any existing texts of Latin or Greek literature owe their preservation to their agency, or that any editorial or bibliographical work was carried out under their aegis. Libraries are known to have been founded also at many provincial settlements under the Empire, and in a few cases (e.g. at Tingad in Numidia and Ephesus) there are traces of the buildings they occupied.

At an early date libraries were associated with the work of the Church. Origen's great library at Caesarea is well known; there were patriarchal libraries at Alexandria and Constantinople, a papal library at Rome formed by Damasus in the 4th century, and episcopal libraries such as those of Isidore at Seville and Bp. Alexander at Jerusalem, while small col-

lections at churches (e.g. at Hippo, Cirra and Nola) seem to have been common. The age of the monastic library began with Cassiodorus and S. Benedict, whose monasteries of Vivarium and Monte Cassino were founded in the 6th century. At both the tasks of reading, and as a necessary corollary that of copying, were enjoined, and the great tradition of the monastic scriptorium was thus launched on its way. The contribution of English and Irish leaders to this tradition is important. In Ireland the renaissance of the 6th and 7th centuries (which may have drawn some of its inspiration from Southern Gaul, where academic life and libraries were flourishing in the 5th century) led to the founding of religious houses with libraries and scriptoria such as Clonard, from which S. Columba went to establish his house at Iona, and Bangor, whence S. Columbanus sailed to found a chain of monasteries in Gaul and Italy, culminating in the famous house of Bobbio; two of his disciples also founded the abbeys of SS. Gall and Rébais. Bobbio soon adopted the Benedictine rule; its library, enriched by gifts from Irish as well as continental sources, numbered according to a 10th century catalogue 666 volumes, including many classical texts. It was dispersed in the 17th century, its books going mostly to the Vatican, the Ambrosian library at Milan and Turin.

In England, about 70 years after S. Augustine's landing, Theodore of Tarsus, Archbishop of Canterbury and Hadrian, Abbot of SS. Peter and Paul, set going the tradition of monastic schools and libraries. Both were good Greek scholars, and the first English library at Canterbury included Greek works. To Theodore's time we can also date the introduction of charters or written records of the grant of land, based on the private charter of Roman Imperial days. Two great endeavours followed shortly. One was the missionary work of S. Boniface in Germany, leading to the foundation of the monastery of Fulda and its library in 744; his influence spread also to the Irish foundations of SS. Gall and Reichenau, and English books and handwriting were introduced into their libraries. The other was the work of Benedict Bishop in Northumbria, where he founded the obviously great library that made possible the work of Bede at Monk

Wearmouth in the early 8th century. Bede's European reputation is a tribute not merely to his own scholarship and sanctity, but to the importance of the library where he worked. There were no libraries in Western Europe outside Italy to compare either with this, or with the later library at York which Alcuin describes in some detail. Alcuin, who was born in the year of Bede's death, left York to carry out his educational work at the court of Charles the Great; but he was able to draw on the York library to replenish the books at S. Martin of Tours where he finally retired.

The succeeding centuries were dark. Alfred, mindful of the educational work of Charles the Great, gathered scholars from France, Mercia and Wales about him and embarked on a programme which included the founding of religious houses, the launching of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and the translation of Latin works into English. But darkness again descended till the 10th century Benedictine reformation restored monastic discipline and learning. The reformation, which began at Cluny in 910, influenced England through S. Dunstan and S. Oswald, and produced the *Regularis Concordia*, which formed the basis of the English monastic system till the Norman Conquest. In this period, about 35 houses were established in the southern half of the country, all probably possessing libraries and scriptoria. After the Conquest this number was quickly increased, and Lanfranc replaced the *Regularis Concordia* with his *Monastic Constitutions*, which were intended as a general guide to English Benedictine practice. The Benedictine period reached its climax in the 12th and 13th centuries, when the great series of monastic chronicles was being produced; the most important of the chroniclers were perhaps William of Malmesbury (d. 1143) and Matthew Paris (d. 1259), the superintendent of the S. Albans scriptorium, which continued its historical records well into the 15th century.

The association of schools and libraries with the Benedictine houses was a logical result of the Rule from the beginning. Reading, writing and similar tasks were in general concentrated in the cloisters under the shelter of the abbey church; the books themselves were kept in *armaria* in various places according as they were needed for church services, for

reading in the refectory, for teaching or for individual study; in the latter case, they were commonly in or near the east walk of the cloister. The provision of a separate library room was a 15th century development. Fairly detailed descriptions of several such libraries remain to us, notably at Durham, Titchfield, Lanthony and Dover Priory. The debt we owe to the monastic libraries in general for their historical work and for their presentation of many of our classical texts is enormous. After the 13th century, however, with the rise of the new universities, there came a decline in monastic standards. Many of the scriptoria became idle; such copying as still proceeded was often limited to the production of epitomes in a vain effort to reduce the bulk and complexity of the contents of the libraries. The monastic houses met the challenge of humanism with its demand for new educational tools in printed form, with a dogged conservatism which proved fatal. The end came in the period 1536-50, with the suppression of the monasteries, the dispersal of their libraries, and the later purge of the few remaining libraries which was, in the words of C. S. Lewis, the climax of the battle between humanism and scholasticism.

Humanism naturally provoked library activity, not only in the Italy of Petrarch and Poggio, but wherever its influence penetrated. English libraries, particularly at Oxford, profited considerably from the work of 15th century collectors such as Humphrey of Gloucester, and the first of the academic foundations of the Renaissance, Corpus Christi College, Oxford, drew high praise from Erasmus, who said that its *trilinguis bibliotheca* would attract more students to Oxford than in old times had been drawn to Rome. The Elizabethan period brought an organized attempt to salvage the dispersed monastic volumes under the inspiration of Matthew Parker, who was anxious to preserve historical proof of the continuity of the Anglican Church. On the whole the attempt was surprisingly successful, and large numbers of medieval MSS. were rescued and deposited at Oxford, Cambridge and Lambeth, or in the great private collections which were begun at this time.

The 17th and 18th centuries brought a

number of significant developments. The foundation or re-organization of royal, national and academic libraries at most of the cultural centres of Europe (e.g. the Vatican, the Escorial in Spain, Paris, Vienna, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Uppsala and Leyden) is notable. Sir Thomas Bodley founded his new library at Oxford in 1598, and this was quickly recognized as a great 'public' library with almost national status. During these two centuries both the English university libraries steadily enriched their stocks by the acquisition of valuable collections, but in an age when university life was at a low ebb, comparatively little use was made of them. In a real sense the great private libraries at this time took the place of our present national and public libraries, and we owe a great debt to the Cottons, the Harleys, the Earls of Sutherland, Cardigan, Derby and Carlisle, Lord Somers and many others, not merely for the magnificent libraries they collected, but for their wisdom in opening them freely to scholars. At this time also the fashion of book collecting became general amongst middle class families and country squires; there is no better illustration of this than the admirably arranged library of Samuel Pepys which still survives in its original presses at Cambridge.

The 70 years following the Restoration was a period of intense activity in science, mathematics, history, palaeography and classics, and the Royal Society was only the first of a great number of learned societies operating in fields which became gradually more and more specialized, and all publishing their transactions and proceedings in the new form of the periodical—a form which continues to present libraries with increasingly difficult problems. The greatest of all the learned institutions of this country, the British Museum, was founded in 1753.

Many town and parish libraries, both on the Continent and in England, were established in the 17th century; Bristol, Leicester, Coventry, Norwich and the Chetham library at Manchester are notable examples of the early municipal library. Parish libraries intended mainly for the clergy have been common from the earliest times, but a large number of foundations took place at this period; Grantham (1598), Langley Marish (1623), Wim-

borne Minster and S. Martin-in-the-Fields (1684), are examples. The S.P.G. and the General Assembly in Scotland were responsible for many 18th century parish libraries.

There is much evidence that a remarkable increase took place in the reading population of England in the 18th and 19th centuries; the increase was general amongst all sections of the population, but there was a particular increase in women readers (which Dr. Johnson noted as having taken place in his lifetime) and later amongst working men and artisans who seized the opportunities offered by the increased number of schools available to them. Subscription and proprietary libraries sprang up in many of the larger towns in the 18th century; and commercial circulating libraries became common throughout the country, especially at resorts such as Bath, Margate and Brighton. The latter, which were often established in millinery or other shops, appealed especially to women readers, though their stocks were by no means confined to novels. In the early 19th century the opening of libraries by the new Mechanics' Institutes for the benefit of working class readers was advocated by Lord Brougham and others, and over 700 such libraries were in operation in the British Isles by the time of the passing of the first Public Libraries Act in 1850. They provide an interesting example of the common English method of proving the need for a service by voluntary methods before it is placed on an official footing. Many were in due course absorbed by the new public libraries. The idea of popular education and popular libraries was still unwelcome in some conservative quarters, and both types of library had to meet considerable opposition at first from people who saw danger in giving the working man free access to books. Not till the abolition of the stamp duties and the introduction of compulsory education in the last half of the century did the idea win general acceptance.

Two notable subscription libraries were opened in the mid-19th century. The London Library, which was founded in 1841 by Carlyle, with the co-operation of Gladstone, Hallam, Forster and Cornwall Lewis, came into being partly on account of the unsatisfactory state of the British Museum, which was

LIBRARIES, HISTORY

then in grave need of re-organization and expansion. Mudie's, the greatest name in the field of Victorian circulating libraries, was founded by Charles Edward Mudie in 1842. Before his death in 1890 it had indeed become the largest organization of its kind in the world. Later, however, its prosperity declined, and it closed down in 1937.

The great developments that have taken place during the last 50 years both in national and university libraries, in municipal and county libraries, and in industrial and scientific libraries, are dealt with in other articles. The only type of library that has not fully shared in this expansion is perhaps the private domestic library. Changing social habits, restricted living accommodation, and increased dependence on external agencies for recreation and education, all tend to make it more difficult to accumulate a private collection of books. But it would be a mistake to take too pessimistic a view of the situation. Private book buying has not decreased (rather the opposite), and private libraries, whether great or small, are still regarded as necessities in countless homes. Important as the publicly provided library must always be, it can never take the place of the personal collection; and it is probably true to say that more people are to-day gaining more from the books on their own shelves than in any other age of the world's history.

The classical period can be studied in: Kenyon, *Books and readers in ancient Greece and Rome*, 1951; Clark, *The care of books*, 1901; the relevant articles in the *Oxford classical dictionary*; and Milkau, *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* Band III, 1953. For the Alexandrian libraries, see also the introduction to the Loeb edition of Callimachus, and White, J. W., *The scholia on the Aves of Aristophanes*, 1914. For Roman libraries see Cliff, E. H., *Latin pseudographia*, 1945. The medieval period is surveyed in Thompson, J. W., *Medieval libraries*, 1939. See also Galbraith, *Historical research in medieval England*; Neil, Ker R., *Medieval libraries of Great Britain*, 1941; and Wright, C. E., 'The dispersal of the monastic libraries,' *Trans. Camb. Bibl. Soc.*, 1951, Vol. 1. For the humanist revival see Bolgar, R. R., *The classical heritage*, 1954; and Lewis, C. S., *English literature in the sixteenth century*, 1954 (Introduction).

For circulating libraries, etc., consult Hamlyn, H. M., 'Eighteenth century circulating libraries in England,' *The Library*, 1947, 1, 197; Beckwith, F., 'Eighteenth century proprietary libraries,' *J. Document.*, 1947, 3, 81-98; and Blakey, D., *The Minerva Press, 1790-1820*, 1939. For general surveys see Irwin, R., 'Studies in the history of libraries,' *Libr. Ass. Rev.*, 1954-55.

R.I.

Library administration See ADMINISTRATION.

Library Association The Association responsible in the United Kingdom for the examination and certification of library workers, the accumulation and dissemination of general information concerning libraries and the establishment and propagation of general standards in librarianship.

History to 1927 On October 5th, 1877, the International conference of librarians which had been convened in the London Institution, Finsbury Circus, largely at the initiative of its librarian, E. W. B. Nicholson, resolved 'That a Library Association of the United Kingdom be founded.' No earlier record of any comparable body is known in England, although the American Library Association had been founded in 1876, itself a long delayed outcome of the librarians' convention in New York in 1853.

The constitution of the L.A.U.K., drafted by the Organizing Committee of the conference, was simple and liberal. Its object was 'to unite all persons engaged in or interested in library work, for the purpose of promoting the best possible administration of existing libraries, and the formation of new ones where desirable. It shall also aim at the encouragement of bibliographical research.' Anyone 'engaged in the administration of a library,' as a member of the governing body or as executive officer, could be admitted to membership, while others could be elected. The early composition of the Association reflects this constitution. Of the first council of 19 members five only were from rate supported public libraries. Among non-librarians joining or in some way honouring the Association several distinguished names are found: Jowett, Mark Pattison and Max

Muller at the first Oxford Conference of 1878 and Jevons and Alexandre Beljame subsequently.

By September, 1878, the Association possessed 168 members; 207 by 1879; 240 by 1880; 336 in 1881 and 368 by September, 1882. Among this 368, 132 were non-librarians—almost the two-fifths maximum permitted by the 1877 constitution. A young contemporary of the 1882 Cambridge Conference, Frank Pacy, wrote of it in 1927 'It was very academical, and possibly at that time began the first symptoms of revolt against the too antiquarian tendency. There were signs of schism; the bibliophiles protesting against the aridity of the exclusive diet of professional topics which characterized the A.L.A.' The Council commented in their report rendered in 1882 'they cannot help feeling that if these expensive volumes [the *Conference transactions and proceedings*] are to be continued, it should be our object as time goes on to increase the amount of matter of permanent interest and value appearing.' Certainly the early volumes, if they recorded distinguished names and scholarly addresses, abounded also in crude technicalities.

This phase of the Association's history, catholic and cosmopolitan, was soon over. Its character was changing. With the growth of free libraries grew the proportion of municipal librarians in membership, and of town councillors. Simultaneously, the attention paid to purely scholarly and bibliographical matters declined. In 1889 the constitution of the Association was revised so as to embody for the first time the principle of corporate membership and voting rights, and the limitation on the proportion of non-librarians was abolished. When the Association received its Royal Charter of Incorporation in 1898, three of its ten stated aims related specifically to public libraries. Its shifting character is seen also in the frequent constitutional revision which took place up to the granting of the Charter. In the most far-reaching, that of 1896, the membership of the Association was divided into Fellows—chief librarians and others of distinction—Honorary Fellows; Members, personal and institutional; and Associates—library assistants, entitled neither to vote nor to hold office. The

camaraderie of amateurishness had given way to hierarchical professionalism. Of the Association as a whole by 1900 it might be said, as Pacy said of the Manchester conference, 'The blackletter school was eclipsed by the modern municipal.'

If this involved both loss and desiccation—witness the foundation of a separate Bibliographical Society in 1893—it also brought a more clearly defined body of support. The status of Fellowship offered some incentive to membership, while increasing attention paid by employing authorities to certificates gained in the Association's examinations (initiated in 1885) helped to make it a recognized professional body. The inception of a professional Register in 1909 was a further stage in professional growth. From 1901 the Association had its own paid staff in its London Offices, and advertised among its services free legal advice to members on library matters.

The Library Association was now clearly the responsible association for municipal librarians. Yet its defeats and failures in this capacity were serious. In 1889-91, when it appeared that municipal library committees might become the new technical education authorities, the Association as a whole ignored the subject. It failed to obtain support in Parliament for the granting of library powers to the county councils after 1888, or to secure the amendment of the Library Acts so as to abolish the penny rate limitation on library expenditure. In its relations with the profession as a whole the Association was for long precariously placed. The byelaws adopted at the annual meeting of September, 1909, initiating the professional Register, enforced a classification of the whole membership into five categories: Fellows (F.L.A.); Honorary Fellows; Members (M.L.A.)—broadly librarians over the age of 25; Associate Members—now 'Members of Library Committees and other persons connected with the administration of Libraries, or interested in the objects of the Association, not being Librarians,' together with institutions; and Student Members, still unable to vote or hold office. The antithesis of the constitution of 1877, this classification may well have deterred recruitment to the Association. When the county libraries developed after 1918-19,

LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

their librarians—often appointed from outside the profession and in no case enjoying status as chief officer—as a whole remained outside the Association for several years. Failing to grapple with the difficulties of library provision outside England, the Association was rivalled early in the century by a number of parallel national bodies—the Irish Rural Libraries Association founded in April, 1904, Cumann Leabharlann na hEireann founded in June, 1904, and the Scottish Library Association, in 1908. Within England, by 1900 the only branch to have been formed was the North Western in 1896, other districts preferring to form independent bodies. After the 1914-18 War the Association had but some 800 members, little more than double the total of the mid-1880's: yet public library authorities alone numbered over 600. Writing of this period in his *A librarian's memories* in 1952, E. A. Savage commented 'the Association's affairs were in a damnable state; we had fallen to the lowest point in our vagrant history.'

From 1927 The second phase of the Library Association's history begins with the appointment in July, 1926, of the Special Development Committee, 'to consider the constitutional and administrative reforms necessary to extend and strengthen the influence of the Library Association,' at the instigation and under the dynamic chairmanship of E. A. Savage, City Librarian of Edinburgh. In January, 1927, the Committee's report was adopted by the Council, and from it arises almost the whole later evolution of the Association.

First among the consequences of this report was an approach made to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust requesting financial help for development purposes, and in December, 1927, the Trust made an offer of three diminishing annual grants, beginning with £1,000, to be given principally on condition that an attempt be made to unite the various British professional associations. The attempt to unify the profession came second. Representatives for a joint committee with the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux 'to consider questions of common interest to the two bodies' were nominated in July, 1928. By January, 1931,

the Scottish Library Association, the Birmingham and District Library Association, the North Midland Library Association and the Association of Assistant Librarians had all entered the Library Association. The attitude of the Association towards county librarians had already been clarified. A county librarians' conference in November, 1926, had asked for a representation of two members on the Library Association Council, and in January, 1927, the latter had agreed to the co-option of two such nominees 'subject to the condition that the County librarians as a body (or at least the great majority of them) should join the Library Association.' Negotiations with A.S.L.I.B. alone failed. Thirdly, a search for suitable professional headquarters in London began. In 1931, the C.U.K.T. offered the Association premises in the present Malet Place to be converted for that purpose. In December, 1931, the Headquarters Committee held its first meeting under the chairmanship of E. A. Savage, and in May, 1933, the converted Malet Place building was formally opened. Fourthly, a full-time secretary—a post which had been allowed to lapse—was appointed again as from March, 1928. Finally, the annual meeting of the Association in September, 1928, accepted the Development Committee's proposals for constitutional reform, and the new bylaws came into force on January 1st, 1929.

Four main changes were embodied in these bylaws. They reinstated the basic principle of full membership with voting rights open to librarian, student or layman alike on payment of subscription, classified status on the Register being accorded only to those librarians applying for it; they introduced graded subscription rates based on members' income so as to encourage more young librarians and more library authorities to join; and they reduced the size of the Library Association Council. Lastly, and most important if the Association be considered a learned society, they laid down rules for the formation of Sections representing specific types of library and being represented on the Library Association Council. The origins of sectional organization, it may be noted parenthetically, lie apparently in a request considered by the Executive Committee of

the Association in September, 1927, that a special county librarians' section be formed. Pending the constitutional revision then proceeding, the Committee suggested such a section should informally be constituted by the county librarians, and the first committee meeting of this Section was held in November, 1927. In 1928 the Council was asked to authorize the formation of a University and Research Section as 'it had been felt that municipal librarians had tended by force of numbers to swamp research librarians in the Association, and that a good many of the latter had in consequence stood aloof' (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, December, 1928). On September 24th the Council resolved that the Section be formed and its activities began soon afterwards. Holding its own week-end conference annually and issuing publications such as the *Manual of university and college library practice*, the University and Research Section quickly became an important influence in University Library affairs.

The cumulative effect of the Development Committee's proposals throughout the succeeding decade was great and greatly needed. In mid-1930, after the several amalgamations the Association had 2,884 members; by 1932, 3,828; by 1936, 5,046; and by 1940, 6,167. By 1950 membership exceeded 10,000 and local branches numbered 10. More important than numbers, special interests were more adequately provided for by 1950. Four new Sections had been established since 1930: the School Libraries Section, formed by resolution of Council in December, 1936, the Youth Libraries Section in October, 1946 (succeeding an Association of Children's Librarians formed in November, 1937), the Medical Section in September, 1948, and the Reference and Special Libraries Section in October, 1950. By annual section conferences, by publications (e.g. the *School library review*, issued by the School Libraries Section from 1936), and by pressure exerted in the L.A. Council, these had contributed much to the acquisition of special techniques and knowledge.

By the time of writing, therefore, the Library Association offered its members a series of Sections likely to grow in importance, annual conferences, a monthly journal, a series

of reasonably priced monograph publications covering most professional fields, some of primary importance—such as the *Survey of libraries* of 1938—a professional headquarters in the literary metropolis of Bloomsbury, and a professional library hardly equalled in the country. The complexity of its organization, the wide range of its activities and its several formal connections with other bodies can be judged from the printed annual reports of Council.

Unhappily, on the other hand, not all the promise of the 1930's had been maintained. The position of specialized librarians *vis-à-vis* the Association remained unsatisfactory. A slight percentage of industrial librarians were represented in its membership; hospital librarians had no separate identity in its organization; and school librarians no longer participated, the committee of the School Libraries Section having requested the Council to wind up the Section at the end of 1946, as the School Library Association and the L.A. had been unable to agree on terms of fusion. Internally, the practicality of the 1929 Constitution had been impaired by revision again enlarging the Council and introducing geographical representation balancing that of the sections, and by friction caused by the continual existence of the Association of Assistant Librarians as a separate section without clearly defined fields of interest. The Association's publications were markedly uneven and its journal (now the *Record*, after a succession including the *Library journal*, *Monthly notes*, the *Library chronicle* and *The Library*) had, within a few years, varied between a domestic pedestrianism and excellence.

Future development Clearly change is needed, and is probable. In particular, hard work is needed if University and special librarians are to see significant advantages in membership of the Association. Much depends on the membership at large and it would be foolish to offer prophecy, but it is safe finally to recall that in the past the library profession in its time of need has found successively a Nicholson, a MacAlister and a Savage. It is unlikely that in the future great leadership will be altogether wanting.

Annual printed reports of Council, and notes on Council meetings published in the

LIBRARY AUTHORITIES

successive official journals of the Association, supplemented by a file of Council and committee minutes and issues of the *Year book*, which contains all current information. There is no official history of the Association. The 1939 *Year book* contains the chronological Annals of the Library Association. See also Frank Pacy, 'Early days' in *Proceedings of the 50th anniversary conference*, Edinburgh, 1927, pages 52-73, and E. A. Savage, *A librarian's memories*, 1952.

G.J.

Library authorities See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Library binding A special form of book-binding that has strength and durability to withstand library use. Distinguished from 'edition binding.'

McGill, W. 'A note on how some publishers produced reinforced or special library bindings for public libraries nearly 50 years ago.' *Libr. World*, 1952, 54, No. 630, 90-92. 'Library binding ain't what it used to be!' *Bookbinding and book-production*, 1952, 55, No. 5.

Library committees See COMMITTEES.

Library co-operation *Purposes* Libraries, other than personal collections, are themselves examples of co-operation, whereby members of a public, academic, industrial or other community share the use of informational or textual resources, together with the help of appropriately qualified staff. The collaboration and sharing of commitments and facilities between such co-operative enterprises is a logical development, particularly under the straitened financial circumstances in which most kinds of libraries have operated. New immediate purposes of library co-operation develop with new demands by library users, but the main, constant aim is the extension of provision and improvement of facilities without a proportionate increase in expenditure.

History With such objectives in mind have been started numberless local agreements between libraries, beginning in Britain, possibly, with that of public libraries in South-East London in 1911-12, which included inter-availability of tickets and inter-library loans, (handicapped by the absence of a union

catalogue), and including those between counties and constituent townships, and between libraries of contiguous urban authorities, as well as the working agreements between the libraries of city, university and technical college in Glasgow, Newcastle upon Tyne, Birmingham, Bristol and Exeter, reported by Mitchell in 1924. In 1915 the Adams Report had urged co-ordination of libraries on a county basis; Mitchell recommended a 'county joint committee' and suggested that 'a policy of mutual loans might usefully be tried.'

University libraries began the first full-scale, permanent co-operative organization when in 1923 the Association of University Teachers decided to inaugurate a scheme of co-operation between university libraries, which later resulted in the formation of a Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation. In 1925 an enquiry office for the location of needed books was opened in Birmingham with the help of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. The National Central Library on its formation, absorbed it.

The Kenyon Report of 1927 recommended inter-library loans and inter-availability of tickets as 'the substitute for a compulsorily organized system under Government control.' 'It is abundantly evident,' commented the Committee, 'that no library except a copyright library (and not always these) can become possessed of all the literature that an educated public needs.' The C.U.K.T., which might be called the midwife of the national library service, had anticipated these comments; from 1920 onwards it encouraged special libraries to co-operate by means of grants given on condition that they became 'outlier' libraries of the Central Library for Students, and in 1927 began to sponsor schemes of local co-operation which in 1931 culminated in the formation of the first two Regional Library Systems.

The formation of the Central Library for Students arose from Professor Adams's report to the Trust in 1915, and was made possible by a C.U.K.T. grant in 1916. Its translation into the N.C.L. in 1931 was likewise made possible by a further Trust grant. This pioneering finally succeeded when in 1945 the last Regional Library System to be formed in

Britain—that for Scotland, which had been delayed by legal difficulties—was instituted.

Library co-operation takes three main forms—the sharing of *extant* local provision and agreed activity to that end; united action to *extend* joint provision, and *co-ordination* of method and activity. The first covers a multiplicity of current and long-standing practices: inter-availability of tickets, of which the Metropolitan London agreement is the outstanding example, though similar arrangements are legion; inter-library loan facilities, such as apply universally throughout the country by means of the Regional Library Systems and the N.C.L., and are facilitated by the compilation of union catalogues and their publication where possible (e.g., the *Union list of periodicals in the university libraries*, the *Aslib guide* and the *British Union catalogue of periodicals*); staff exchanges, designed mainly at present for the training of personnel concerned, though they could also be made useful in enabling specialist knowledge to be put to better account in mutual stock editing; exchanges of bookstock, which many public libraries practise with minority interests such as foreign literature; the publication of joint lists of accessions, such as those of the public libraries contributing to the scheme outlined by Mr. Cotton in *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 209; the sharing of such facilities as a library bindery or a mechanical cataloguing system; the extension of facilities by an urban library to rural residents on its perimeter, on an agreed basis; and the exchange of withdrawn material, begun in 1936 by the University and Research Section of the Library Association, continued to-day on a much larger scale by the British National Book Centre, and practised in three of the Regions.

Co-operative action to extend provision has included the Metropolitan Special Collections Scheme and other regional agreements for co-operative book purchase (see under Subject Specialization); the foreign literature agreements of the East Midlands and London, the Regional Drama Schemes of the North-Western and other regions; co-operative publicity, such as was issued by the Library Association in 1950; co-operative provision of periodicals and technical information (see under C.I.C.R.I.S. and the Sheffield

Scheme); co-operative publication—of union catalogues, publicity or a staff recruitment leaflet, including the recent topical subject lists of the L.A., such as no single library could manage for itself; co-operative cataloguing, as in the *British national bibliography* and its printed cards; and regional joint subscriptions to specialist rental libraries to fill known gaps.

Jointly agreed activity, the third form of library co-operation, includes the co-ordinated siting of branches between contiguous authorities, as was achieved by London boroughs at the end of the Second World War; standardization, exemplified by Metropolitan London's near-conformity in readers' tickets, issue methods and opening hours; mutual research and survey projects such as the L.A. instigates from time to time; the creation of a joint reserve pool of little-used literature—e.g. the fiction reserves of Scotland, London and the Northern Region; joint publication of co-operative recommendations—e.g. the L.A. *Books for young people* series; co-ordinated staff grading, which the metropolitan boroughs have obtained; a co-operative classification, which the Aslib Aeronautical Group have undertaken; joint approach to other bodies, instanced by the L.A.'s representation on many institutions, or the Fuel and Power Group's successful representations to the publisher to restore an index to *Fuel abstracts*; joint committees to compile agreed codes for cataloguing (e.g. the Aeronautical Group, and the L.A. Cataloguing Rules Sub-Committee). Recent developments in co-operation have been the Standing Committee on Education for Librarianship, which seeks to co-ordinate tutors' efforts, and the Joint Committee of the L.A. and Aslib, which is preparing an agreed syllabus acceptable to all kinds of librarians. The Furniture Library Group is an example of a new type of co-operation linking public and special libraries sharing a common, limited subject interest in an attempt to achieve a coherent and comprehensive service.

Special libraries Despite the comment of Esterquest that public libraries are the main beneficiaries of schemes of co-operation in force, there are sufficient agreements and activities in operation to balance the picture.

LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

C.U.K.T. prompting led to the participation of many special libraries in the national inter-lending scheme, and there were at the end of 1955 249 such 'outliers' of the N.C.L., about 100 of which are also members of their local Regional Library System, but these are only a fraction of the number taking part in other voluntary schemes. 278, for instance, contribute to the Science Library's Supplementary Loans Service, sending accessions lists which are incorporated in two confidential union catalogues, of periodicals and books respectively and lending items not held by the Science Library on request. 1954 issues under this scheme were 10,500, out of 56,700 handled by the Science Library.

S.C.O.T.A.P.L.L. (Standing Conference of Theological and Philosophical Libraries in London) prepared a *Directory of libraries and special collections* in 1951, and a *Guide for research ticket holders* in 1953, both particularly useful since member libraries issue a joint reader's ticket acceptable by all. A union list of periodicals is planned.

S.C.O.N.U.L. (Standing Conference of National and University Libraries in the United Kingdom), formed in 1950, has begun a number of practical projects, including an index to libraries' holdings of literary MSS. Its 32 members have discussed regional repository libraries for little-used materials (these were rejected), the inter-lending of theses and the Joint Standing Committee's pre-1800 publications plan (see next paragraph) among other topics.

The Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation's Sub-Committee on Background Materials has sponsored a plan for the co-ordinated purchase of British books published before 1800, to ensure their permanent and universal accessibility to scholars. Twenty university and college, 10 special and 24 public libraries have divided the burden on a chronological basis.

These are only some of the many schemes of co-operation which are now operated to their mutual advantage by special libraries of all kinds in Britain. There is as yet, however, no general framework embracing all these diverse patterns, and unifying them to the exclusion of duplication and waste. To this end the Library Association's Sub-Committee

on the Co-operative Provision of Books, Periodicals and Related Materials was formed initially, and is still attempting to find a generally acceptable formula.

The future It would appear that, while the policy and practice of industrial and other special libraries is laid down for them and may not be radically altered, those of public libraries are susceptible of considerable modification to meet changing national needs. A pattern seems to be evolving which, while permitting the public library service to concentrate on known local and majority demand and standard works in all subjects, requires their supplementation by a growing number of bibliographies, union lists, indexes and abstracts, which shall be guides to the further resources available through increasing regional and national co-operation. Arrangements for co-operative storage and acquisition will require closer relations between public and special libraries, and public library participation to the extent of provision and accommodation of at least a proportion of the rarer material, together with the photo-copying equipment needed to make it generally available. The increasingly abstruse nature of technical publications demands some degree of staff specialization in public libraries, so that subject enquiries may be screened by a specializing general librarian within a region before being passed to the appropriate special library as an ultimate resort, in a nationally co-operative reference service. The compilation of subject bibliographies and indexes to specialized material, may be facilitated by agreements between the larger reference libraries; the increasingly recognized importance of foreign publications could lead to a central agency for their importation on libraries' behalf; further standardization of forms and methods may come about; co-operative micro-editions of rare works should make them generally available, and co-operative photo-copying and microfilming will make this and other material located in indexes widely available. Co-operation is the key to the completion of a comprehensive national library service, essential in the absence of any compulsory scheme.

See also C.I.C.R.I.S.; NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY; REGIONAL LIBRARY

SYSTEMS; SHEFFIELD SCHEME; SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION.

Pafford, J. H. P. *Library co-operation in Europe*. 1935.

Newcombe, L. *Library co-operation in the British Isles*. 1937.

Vollans, R. F. *Library co-operation in Great Britain*. 1952.

National Central Library and National Committee on Regional Library Co-operation. *Recommendations on library co-operation*. 1954.

Esterquest, R. *Library co-operation in the British Isles*. 1955 (A.C.R.L.S. Monograph No. 12).

Library Association. *Proceedings of the Annual Conference, Edinburgh, 1951*. (*Library co-operation: a symposium*. 49-61.)

Staveley, R. *Notes on modern bibliography*. 1954. (Chapter 10, 'The question of accessibility.' 97-106.)

Library Association. Library Research Committee. 'Report on the co-operative provision of books, periodicals and related materials in libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 8-9.

Francis, F. C. 'The co-ordination of library services.' *Libr. Ass. Proc. of the Annual Conference, Southport, 1955*. 92-100.

Hill, R. H. and Filon, S. P. L. 'The incorporation of special libraries in the national inter-lending system.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 477-80.

J. F. W. B.

Library corner In covering the book the covering material is not cut, the excess being taken up in two diagonal folds, one under each turn-in (see also MITRED CORNER and SQUARE CORNER).

Library edition 1. A publisher's term for a series or a set of books, often all the works of an author, issued in uniform style. 2. An edition prepared with an especially strong binding for library use (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

'Library has' A note in a catalogue entry for a serial indicating the library's holdings.

Library law See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Library literature Although librarianship has built up a fairly large and rapidly expanding literature for itself, there are surprisingly

few works which can be regarded as critical in the development of the profession. Modern librarianship is rich in its inheritance but is less impressive in its own performance. The names which are met with in the history of libraries, names such as Richard de Bury, Jefferson, Naudet, Edwards, only serve to emphasize the dearth of anything of real significance in the present century. In its associated arts and sciences, notably in bibliography, librarianship has again been fortunate in having a reflected glow in which to bask, but the authentic voice of the professional librarian is still not notably heard.

The two most interesting aspects of the problem are concerned with the general trend of professional writing, especially in this country. By far the greatest amount of print is lavished on techniques, which have been discussed and argued over until nothing new apparently remains to be said. We appear to be creating a profession in which the most exciting things are a new floor-covering or a slightly amended method of issue. The means have become so important that the end is being obscured. We present the picture of a profession which is so unsure of itself and its purpose that we gaze and probe unceasingly at the machinery of our own making.

This emphasis brings as its natural corollary the neglect of something which is vital to a healthy society, a belief in the reason for its existence. There is a reticence among librarians to discuss that outlook on their work which might be dignified by the title of a philosophy of librarianship. Call it what we will, we must have it as a profession or cease to be an effective force in the modern world. Of recent years in this country no more than one such attempt can claim the attention. In the *Bulletin of the John Rylands Library* for 1941, Sir Frederick Kenyon contributed his 'Testamentum bibliotecarii' and thereby gave the profession the one outstanding modern example.

This same attitude may also account for the dearth of biographical material regarding librarians, yet the few biographies which do exist suggest that it could be an interesting area of endeavour. Louis Fagan's *Life of Sir Anthony Panizzi*, G. W. Prothero's *Memoir of Henry Bradshaw* and H. F. Stewart's *Memoir*

LIBRARY LITERATURE

of Francis Jenkinson are an admirable trio, but they are lonely examples. Indeed, M. R. James, in his *Eton and Kings*, referred to Prothero's memoir as '... something of a classic, I think, among biographies of scholars.' The United States has made a contribution in this direction by the series of *American library pioneers*, but many important gaps remain.

In this country the professional associations have attempted to fill some of the gaps but with variable success. In its role as an examining body the Library Association has been preoccupied with the provision of material directly related to the examinations. Consequently, it has tended to deal primarily with 'text-books' in a rather limited sense rather than with the publication of works which might influence professional thought. This tendency has spread to the other main publishing body also. In the present organization, tuition and courses are regarded as second strings to the examinations themselves which in turn are looked upon simply as hurdles to be overcome. It is, therefore, only natural that the Association of Assistant Librarians should have interpreted its part as being that of universal providers of small 'cram-books' or primers. That these are the negation of education is of small importance in a profession which has forgotten the meaning of the word. Aslib has not yet published much of this nature and, if it can hold itself aloof from examinations, will probably maintain its position. Abroad, the biggest publishing organization in the field is the American Library Association. This body's contribution to professional literature has been vast and influential because it has been able to study a general need without keeping an eye on examination requirements.

Outside the strict text-book area the Library Association has produced useful bibliographical and research tools such as the *Subject index to periodicals*, *Library science abstracts* and *Year's work in librarianship*, which has now changed into the *Five years' work in librarianship*.

The most considerable bulk of professional writing has been in periodical form and it is here that the greatest influence has been exerted. The *Library association record* has a long history as the official organ of the pro-

fession in this country. Its mood varies with succeeding editors and, in turn, it has been scholarly, platitudinous, popular and dull. Without any shadow of doubt, however, its files include the most useful material published by the association. The *Assistant librarian*, with the nonchalant irresponsibility which rests easily upon those who do not govern, has alternated its periods of intense boredom with occasions when it has placed splendid squibs under the thrones of officialdom. Aslib's *Journal of documentation* has been the most serious attempt in this country to provide an adult journal which replaces rapid correspondence columns with one of Britain's only two attempts at worthwhile reviewing. The other has always been contributed by Glasgow's *Library review*.

America's contribution to periodical literature has been, as in all areas of journalism, impressive both in its bulk and in its variety; when it is 'good, it is very, very, good, but...' At the top end of the scale sentiment would always find room for those two old stagers, *The library journal* and *Wilson library bulletin*. Some of the later arrivals must, nevertheless, rank at the very peak of achievement. *American documentation*; *Library trends*, from the University of Illinois Library School; and *Library quarterly* from the University of Chicago Library School sprang into the lead with their first issues and have maintained their advanced position.

Lastly, two important facts must be noticed. Within the bounds of the English speaking world, and it is their publications which will have the greatest effect upon the present generation of British librarians, there are countries where libraries in the modern sense are either of new growth or where they are developing at an enormous rate. In these countries, where the general publishing programme is, as yet, small, the periodical literature is a living testimony to healthy and critical growth. The official journals of the Australian, Canadian, New Zealand and South African Library Associations demonstrate the vigorous growth of modern librarianship in the long established libraries. The journals from India and West Africa record the amazing development which is going on in these two vast and newly library-conscious areas.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CLASSIFICATION

The other interesting facet is the appearance of two journals which try to provide an international medium of communication. *Libri* and the *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, although recent arrivals, have already established themselves firmly as periodicals of importance. It may well be that it is from this direction that some of the most useful professional literature of the future may come.

Library of Congress classification History

The Library of Congress was founded in 1800, burned out in 1814, and restocked in 1815 with the private library of Thomas Jefferson. This was arranged in 44 classes based on Bacon's *Chart of human learning*. With modifications, the method lasted until 1897, when the library was rehoused, and consideration of a new scheme was put in hand.

Dr. Herbert Putnam was appointed Librarian in 1899 and brought to fruition the gigantic task of arranging a great national library according to a modern classification. It is doubtful if such a project can ever be completed. The library has grown from 964 volumes and 9 maps in 1800, to about 7,000 volumes in 1815, close on 2,000,000 in 1899, and over 10,000,000 books in 1954 (over 33,000,000 various items altogether).

Principles and outline The Congress library has to serve two masters. It is the deposit library for a federation of national states covering almost a continent and also the research workshop for that federation's legislature. Thus, the scheme itself, while most scholarly in detail, does not pretend to have any but the loosest connection between its main classes. There would be little point, as the books on all but the most closely related subjects are necessarily widely scattered. The system has sought convenient sequence of groups of books.

The schedules consist of a series of separate main classes each of which has its own relative index. There is no index to the whole, but the list of *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogues of the Library of Congress* can be a substitute.

Several editions have been published of some classes, a few are out of print, and K (Law) is not yet available. A list of main

classes follows, with a note of price and availability at the time of writing. They may be obtained to order from H.M.S.O.; further information can be obtained from the U.S. Information Service, London. It is possible to use 'L of C' in whole or in part and many libraries do. It should be noted that the classes were tailored to fit the stock of the Library of Congress, which is especially rich in history, political and social science and may appear somewhat distorted when applied elsewhere.

The debt this outline owes to Cutter may be seen by comparing it with the one to be found in the article on the *Expansive classification*

	Class	Edition	Price \$
A	General works		
	Polygraphy	3rd 1947	60c.
B	Philosophy and Religion		
	Pt. 1, B-BJ	2nd 1950	1.50
	BL-BX	N.A.	
C	Auxiliary Sciences of History	2nd 1948	1.25
D	Universal and Old World History and Topography		
	European War	1916	3.50
	Suppt. 2nd World War	1947	25c.
E-F	America	2nd 1913	1.75
G	Geography Anthro-pology Sports	N.A.	
H	Social Sciences	3rd 1950	3.25
J	Political Science	1924	2.75
K	Law (not yet publ.)	N.A.	
L	Education	3rd 1951	1.00
M	Music & Books on Music	1917	1.00
N	Fine Arts	3rd 1922	1.25
P	Philology (Language and Literature)		
	P-PA	1928	60c.
	suppt.	1942	10c.
	PB-PH	1933	1.50
	PG (part)	1948	1.00
	PJ-PM	1935	60c.
	suppt.	1936	10c.
	PN PR PS PZ	1915	1.75
	PQ Pts. 1 & 2	1936-37	85c.
	PT Pts. 1 & 2	1938-42	1.00
Q	Science	5th 1950	1.25

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CLASSIFICATION

Class	Edition	Price \$
R Medicine	3rd 1952	1.50
S Agriculture, etc.	3rd 1948	45c.
T Technology	4th 1948	2.00
U Military Science	3rd 1952	75c.
V Naval Science	N.A.	
Z Bibliography and Library Science	3rd 1927	1.00

Notation Letters up to a maximum of two are used for classes and divisions, then numerals up to four are used serially (not decimally) to indicate subdivisions. The subdivisions are most minute and considering the depth of classification obtained are not unduly long or complicated. Books are arranged relatively but provision is made for both major and minor topics by leaving gaps in the notation. There is nothing to prevent the use of decimals.

Auxiliary tables and similar mnemonic devices, as used in other schemes, do not exist. A few tables, particularly geographical, can be used at more than one place in a class but, usually, subdivision can be made only as specified at one particular place. The schedules are expanded considerably owing to this repetition of often similar subdivisions but, again, the scheme can be tailored to fit the books and each class may be used separately.

Great use is made of alphabetical arrangement within subdivisions where that order is suitable. For this special numbers are provided or the directions to arrange A-Z are given.

Class numbers are put on all printed cards sold by the Library of Congress.

General The scheme is particularly useful for government and other large specialized collections. The lack of synthetic number building facilities is compensated for by the provision of divisions to fit books as they are written rather than subjects in the abstract.

It is in use in Britain in Edinburgh Public Libraries, the National Library of Wales and many government and special libraries. Others use parts and adaptations.

Bliss, H. E. *The organization of knowledge in libraries*. 2nd ed., 1939. Chapter XII.

Grout, C. W. *Explanation of the tables used in the schedules of the Library of Congress Classification . . . 1940* (Mimeographed).

Library of Congress. *Reports of the librarian of Congress*. Annually, 1901 to date.

Library of Congress. *Outline of the classification . . . 6th ed.*, 1942.

Mann, M. *Introduction to cataloguing and the classification of books*. 2nd ed., 1943. Chapter V and XV.

Savage, E. A. *Manual of book classification and display for public libraries*. 1946.

Sayers, W. C. B. *A manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955. Chapter XVI.

E.R.J.H.

Library organization See ADMINISTRATION.

Library publications An obvious publication for a library to undertake is a catalogue of its stock or of some part of its stock. But at the present time the normal form of catalogue is on cards, although, among public libraries, Glasgow and Liverpool have remained true to the printed form, and the decision of Westminster to change to this in 1952, together with interesting developments at, for example, Bristol and Croydon, suggests that the printed catalogue may experience a revival of popularity.

For the purposes of this article, however, the term 'Library publications' is understood to mean items less weighty than the printed catalogue. Included are booklists of various kinds, guides to the service or to particular departments of the service, notices relating to extension activities and annual reports. The examples quoted are limited to publications of British Public Libraries.

Booklists These usually include only a selection of books in the field chosen; they are restricted in size, and sometimes are presented as folders or even as bookmarks. They exhibit a bewildering variety, though they have the common purpose of publicizing and exploiting the library's bookstock by bringing to the notice of readers books which will interest them and meet their needs. The lists fall into two main classes; there are firstly those which are 'general' (i.e. lists of additions), and secondly 'subject' lists. It has been claimed¹ that purposive readers get little out of 'general' lists, and that 'subject' lists are of more value to them. Yet it is the purposive reader who may be presumed to derive the greatest benefit from a catalogue, and the advanced form of general list closely resembles

a catalogue supplement, including information on scholarly and technical works. Lancashire's *Quarterly list of new books for readers*, for instance, is of a high standard, and many other examples contain too many entries, or are too formal, to appeal to the merely casual library user—especially when they are without annotations. Annotated lists, however, are a different matter, for, unless they are to be of considerable size, they must be highly selective and cannot, therefore, be guides to the subject specialist. The Leeds *Book guide* (now discontinued) was aimed at the discriminating general reader—the reader who, though perhaps purposive in relation to his own subject, is casual in relation to others. A considerable number of general lists, such as the Islington public library's *Bulletin*, contain information about the library's activities, and brief articles on chosen topics; they may draw attention to older as well as new books. In Canterbury's *Good books* the straightforward list of additions disappeared; designed to have a wide popular appeal, this publication contained illustrations, articles, reviews and jokes, and it carried a considerable number of advertisements. Magazines such as this, which frequently focus attention on some particular topic, may perhaps be regarded as forming a link between the 'general' and 'subject' lists.

Many 'subject' lists are compiled at a popular level, and deal with broad topics of general appeal. The value of such lists has been questioned,² though it is admitted³ that there are merits in a presentation of books in a grouping different from that in which they are formally classified. Such a grouping is frequently achieved as, for instance, in Islington's *Fact and fiction* series which cuts across the traditional division of books into two main sections. Leyton's 100 *books about music* is annotated, as are the lists, issued by Glasgow Public Library in connection with its programme of lectures, but in most subject lists, such as Willesden's *Books for gardeners*, annotations are absent, and in many, for example, Bethnal Green's attractive *Handy reading lists* series, only the briefest details of author and title are included. This series, in common with many others, is highly selective in its choice of books, and is clearly not intended for the specialist. The two series of lists

on music published by Newcastle and Nottinghamshire respectively are of a much more advanced kind, but there is only a limited number of high-level lists on specific subjects designed to give real help to the student, the specialist, the business man and the technician. Sheffield's *Research bibliographies* series is, however, notable, and its value extends far beyond the boundaries of Sheffield itself.

A number of libraries have paid attention to children's needs. Islington regularly issues *The young reader*, and general lists of children's books, usually annotated, have come from Kent and from various other authorities. Lancashire's *Our island's story* is an attractive selection of stories with a historical background, and Bethnal Green's *Your library and you*, consisting of personal messages from 12 well-known children's authors is an interesting example of a new approach.

All the examples of library publications mentioned so far are printed (as opposed to duplicated). The opinion has been expressed⁴ that printed material has greater appeal, greater publicity value and commands more respect; nevertheless, a great many booklists are produced by library staffs on normal duplicators. Of the general lists Buckinghamshire's *Recent additions . . .* may be mentioned, and Newcastle has produced a great many subject lists both at popular and advanced levels. Not as much use as might be expected is yet made of office composing machines and lithographic duplicating, though Tottenham has for some time produced its pleasant near-print *Book page* by this method.

The variety of existing examples makes it apparent that important decisions must be made whenever the publication of a booklist, either 'general' or 'subject' is contemplated. Is it to be directed to the purposive or the casual reader, to the expert or the amateur? What amount of detail is to be included in the actual entries, and in what order are the entries to be arranged? For although a formal air is suited to some lists, an impression of informality may be deliberately cultivated in others. Are advertisements to be included, and is the publication to be charged for or freely distributed? These and other questions will be variously answered, but in all cases it is important that the booklists shall be designed to

LIBRARY PUBLICATIONS

make a positive contribution to the library's work and shall not be regarded merely as frills. They should have 'a conscious and definable object,'⁵—should be aimed at a distinct section of the library's users; and attempts should be made, after publication, to discover whether their objectives have been attained.

From time to time the suggestion has been advanced that booklists should be produced on a co-operative basis. The Library Association has itself issued a series of printed guides on broad subjects. These were highly selective, and intended to have a popular appeal. It has recently begun to issue duplicated lists on specific subjects at an advanced level. The County Libraries Section has been responsible for the *Reader's guides* series, and Library Association branches have compiled lists of books for young people.

Guides to the service Introductions to the library and to the various services which it offers are helpful to newly joined readers and may have a wider publicity value. By no means all libraries provide such guides, and most examples seem to be designed rather for external publicity than for actual instruction in library use. *A family affair* published in 1950 by Leyton, in co-operation with the Central Office of Information, succeeds in showing, through illustrations and text, how the library and its extension activities contribute to the lives of two families in the area. Among other illustrated brochures are those produced by Nottinghamshire, Sheffield and Westminster. Bethnal Green's *Books have wings* is a folder of identical format to the same library's reading lists, and the Middlesex *An introduction to your library service* is small and unpretentious as is Newcastle's *Your library service*. Colchester's *Asked and answered* presents its information in an unusual way. The series of *Service hints* published by Leyton is concerned with explaining particular uses of the library; somewhat similar guides have come from Westminster and elsewhere.

Notices of extension activities The range of any single library's publications in this category clearly depends on the importance which it attaches to the activities concerned. Dudley has done much work in this field as has Leyton, whose *Opportunities* is a model

publication of its kind. Well printed announcements of lectures come from Finchley, and film shows are publicized by Sheffield and Leicester. St. Pancras has issued impressive programmes for the borough's Arts Festival, and leaflets relating to Book Weeks, Exhibitions, etc., have been produced by a great many libraries at different times.

Annual reports It has been stated⁶ that the main function of an annual report is to serve as a record of stewardship, and that any publicity value which it may have, though useful, is of secondary importance. It has been further urged⁷ that the report should be formal, conveying an impression of dignity and restraint, and that statistics should be given their proper amount of space. An opposite view,⁸ however, regarding annual reports as advertising matter first and foremost, claims that great use of statistics should be avoided. On this view reports should be attractive enough in appearance to catch the eye, and their contents must be interesting. The style of a report is bound to be affected by the nature of the body to whom it is addressed. It may be a report from the librarian to his committee, or from the library committee to the council; or, though theoretically one of the above, it may in fact be in a popular form and intended principally for the benefit of readers. Unless a report is to be widely distributed there seems little justification for a lavish publication the money expended on which could be better devoted to other purposes. The reports of the big library systems, for example those of Bristol, Glasgow, Manchester and Sheffield, are of great interest to the librarianship profession and are often handsomely produced and embellished with illustrations. Leeds and Nottingham, however, have abandoned both cover and title-page and, though printed, are unpretentious. Other libraries have resorted to near-print, and some, Wandsworth for example, to normal duplicating.

It has been frequently stated that any piece of printed or duplicated material emanating from a library should be technically of a high standard, and library publications are regularly commented upon in the professional press,⁹ particular attention being paid to their physical production. Certain libraries, such

as Battersea, Bethnal Green and Leyton, have established reputations for good work, and the general interest shown in library publications should ensure a continuing improvement in their overall quality.

¹ Reynolds, J. D. 'The published booklist and the exploitation of stock: II. General lists.' Library Association (London and Home Counties Branch). 'Bibliography and book-stock.' 1954, 34-41.

² Smith, F. S. 'The published booklist and the exploitation of stock: III Subject lists.' In Library Association (London and Home Counties Branch). 'Bibliography and book-stock.' 1954, 34-41.

³ Jolliffe, H. 'Library publications.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1952, 54, 227-9.

⁴ Horrocks, S. H. 'Annual reports—are they read?' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1950, 52, 222-6.

⁵ Reynolds, J. D. *op. cit.*

⁶ Elliott, C. A. 'Annual reports and the materials of publicity.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 183-4.

⁷ Jolliffe, H. *op. cit.*

⁸ Horrocks, S. H. *op. cit.*

⁹ e.g. 'Municipal library notes,' in many issues of the *Libr. Ass. Rec.*

W.H.C.L.

Library rate See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Libretto The literary text of an extended vocal composition; such as an opera, oratorio or cantata; a text intended for musical composition in one of these forms (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Ligatures Tied letters, e.g. fi, ff, fl, cast on one body to avoid awkward spaces, and to lessen the difficulty of kerned letters. Ligatures are basically an endeavour to economize space (see also LOGOTYPES).

Lighting The library lighting problem is twofold: the problems of natural lighting or daylighting, and artificial lighting. Both problems must be solved in connection with the shape, decoration and colour of the interior of the library.

The fundamental activity in a library is reading, and at all points where concentrated reading is done there must be firstly sufficient light, and secondly surroundings free from visual distraction such as glare.

The efficiency of reading done in a library

depends on these factors. But concentrated reading at desks or tables is not the only activity. The titles of books on the shelves and their shelf marks must also be well lit, and this demands a different type of light from that required for reading.

There are three variable factors in the lighting problem: 1. The eye, which varies in its sensitivity to light from one reader to another. 2. The reading matter, which may have small or large print, or may be printed on matt or glossy paper, which reflect light in very different intensities. 3. The lighting. The first two factors cannot be standardized, and therefore we are concerned with finding average or optimum values for conditions of lighting, i.e. we are concerned with degrees of brightness at different points in the library.

Units of measurement

The total brightness at any one point is made up of the strength of the source of light plus the reflected light from surrounding objects.

The unit of light measurement was formerly known as the 'foot-candle,' but this term has now been replaced by the term 'lumen.' The measurement is derived from the light of an ordinary standard candle, and the lumen is defined as the amount of light falling on 1 sq. ft of the surface of a sphere of radius 1 ft, from a standard candle at its centre. Since the surface of the sphere is about 12½ sq. ft, an ordinary candle emits about 12½ lumens of light. For comparison with the more familiar modern electric lamp, one 100 watt lamp gives off about 1,100 lumens, whereas a 300 watt lamp (which is more efficient) gives off about 4,400 lumens. So much for the source of light. (See table in E.L.M.A. handbook *Electric lamps.*)

Reflected light

There is also, however, reflected light from all surrounding objects; and these reflect varying amounts of light according to their dark or light finish. The amount of light reflected by a certain shade of colour is known as its 'reflection factor,' and this varies greatly, from about 10 per cent up to about 85 per cent. Hence the importance of interior decoration, and the advantage of using light colours on walls and furniture, which actually increase

LIGHTING

the amount of light in the library. A table of reflection factors, given in percentages of light reflected, is to be found in E.L.M.A. Lighting Service Bureau . . . Handbook No. 2, whereas definitions of units of measurement are given in Handbook No. 1.

For visual comfort the reflection factors of different parts of the library should be approximately as follows:

Ceilings	80-85 %
Walls	50-60 %
Desk and Table-tops, Furniture	35-50 %
Floors	15-30 %

The purpose of this is to provide as much light as possible without glare, and without the distracting element of great contrasts between light and dark areas. Thus the contrast in brightness between book and table-top should not be more than 3 to 1, and from the book to remote surfaces not more than 10 to 1. The table-top should therefore be of a medium light colour, giving a medium reflection factor, and should not have a glossy reflecting finish. It should also be remembered that dirt decreases the reflection factor and thus reduces light!

The whole problem resolves itself into one of providing sufficient light, but at the same time avoiding contrasts which disturb the eye, whether they be naked bright sources of light, or bright reflecting surfaces, both of which produce 'glare,' or patches of darkness, which tire the eye by producing violent contrasts.

There is much to be learned from nature, where the eye is surrounded by the pleasant green of vegetation and the blue and white of sky and clouds. (Two recent Swiss buildings provide adjoining gardens on which the eye can rest—Swiss National Library, Berne, and the Lucerne Central Library.)

Daylighting

The quantity of daylight provided by nature varies enormously. It may at mid-summer out-of-doors be as much as 1,000 lumens per sq. ft, indoors only 200, and inside on a dull day only 50, whereas attempts to lay down standards for artificial lighting for reading have arrived at a figure of only about 8 lumens per sq. ft.

Since, then, daylight varies so much, it

becomes clear that, provided that the darkest parts of the library are light enough, the problem is one of distribution of light; for glare is always due to some form of wrong distribution of light. To avoid glare from windows the light should come from the upper part of the windows and glare from sky or clouds should be controlled by blinds or baffles. Daylighting from windows above the level of the bookshelves can be seen at the R.L.B.A. Library, London, and at University College, Swansea. By top-lighting, however, about twice the value of side-lighting will be achieved from windows of the same size. It gives good light distribution, and saves the use of electricity in dull weather.

A well-known experiment in top-lighting without any side-light from windows is the Viipuri Public Library in Finland, designed by Aalto (*Archit. Rev.*, March, 1936). But this extreme case has been bettered by buildings using some side-lighting as well as top-lighting. It must not be forgotten that windows have two functions; to admit light (without glare!) and to allow the reader to see out and rest the weary eyes on distant objects.

A fine example of top-lighting combined with top-side-lighting giving lightsome spaciousness can be seen at the Bitterne Branch of Southampton Libraries (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1939, 41, 504-5). This is perhaps the best solution. If top-lighting admits too much heat in summer, this can be remedied by using a non-actinic glass, which admits about 65 per cent of the light but excludes about 80 per cent of the heat.

Artificial lighting

Since the quantity of artificial light, unlike daylight, can be controlled and is constant, the first question to decide is how much light is required, bearing in mind that too much is just as bad as too little.

Considerable research has been done into the amount of lighting needed for different library activities, and this has been well recorded in Hilton Smith's *Public library lighting*, Vol. 2. Artificial lighting, Pt. 1, p. 49. A table is here given of recommended lighting values for different departments. The various investigators disagreed widely, since there are many variable, subjective and controversial factors

in the problem of lighting. But a second table in the same book, on p. 56, gives average values, indicating that the rough recommended values in lumens per sq. ft vary throughout the library from about 3 on the shelves, 6 to 8 on catalogues and reading tables, to 10 on issue desks, and 20 in display cases. A recent article in *Lighting service* (see ref. No. 9) recommends, however, 15 on reading tables.

Direct or indirect lighting

With this in mind the choice now lies firstly between direct and indirect lighting. Fully indirect lighting casts the light almost entirely upwards, so that only reflected light is received below. It is decorative, but wasteful and extravagant. Fully direct lighting casts the light almost entirely downwards, and is much more economical. It is very good for local lighting, such as in carrells where one well-placed fairly low-wattage source is sufficient. But direct lighting easily produces glare, due to concentrated sources of light and the resulting bad distribution. The source of light must in any case be shaded so that the eye of the reader cannot be dazzled by looking straight into it. A better system is to use as source a large luminous area as in the 'louverall' system, where the light from many small sources in the ceiling is broken up and diffused by means of frosted glass and louvres. A similar result is obtained by the 'coffer' system of ceiling lighting.

Filament v. fluorescent

Here the relative merits of incandescent (filament) and of fluorescent lighting must be summed up. Filament lighting is probably still so widely used because it is cheaper to install and easier to clean. Apart from these two points fluorescent lighting has most of the advantages: fluorescent uses much less current (it is roughly three times as efficient in lumens per watt as the filament lamp) and the life of each element is at least three times as long as that of the filament bulb. Fluorescent gives less glare, because the source of light is spread over a larger surface and is therefore not so intense to the naked eye. It generates less heat, and can therefore be much closer to the reader if necessary. Lastly the tendency

to flicker, for which it is often criticized, has now been quite overcome.

Reading room lighting

Ideally the light for reading should come from a low-brightness large source on the left of and behind the reader, completely shielded from the reader and high enough to spread the light. In practice, however, it is difficult to achieve this and the simpler solution for reading rooms is a fairly high general level of brightness everywhere.

This is, of course, facilitated by the use of light colours in interior decoration, as already explained.

Table lamps have the disadvantage of usually being in front of the reader, which produces glare due to reflection from the book.

Carrell lighting

Here the ideal solution, without table lamps, is comparatively easy. There should be a short-stem indirect light to the left of and behind the reader, e.g. one 100 watt silver-bowled lamp producing about 10 lumens per sq. ft, or two 40 watt fluorescent lights along the left wall-ceiling corner and the top corner behind the reader.

Shelf and stack lighting

For shelves in reading rooms special fittings to light bookshelves are unnecessary if the general lighting of the reading room is enough for reading. This is the simplest solution.

If, however, table lamps are used for reading tables, then special fittings must be provided for lighting the books on the shelves at a brightness of at least 3 lumens per sq. ft. This has been done recently at the library of University College, London, where louvred fluorescent lights are fitted above and about a foot away from the shelves; the lighting is good, but the fittings expensive and heavy in appearance.

Stackrooms present a separate problem. Since daylight is good for people but bad for books, stackrooms are often entirely artificially lit. The wise architect will reserve the outer rooms of the building for reading rooms, and place the bookstacks in the interior of the building. The lack of windows in a stackroom will also save about 20 per cent storage space.

LIMITED EDITION

A famous example of this is the vast annexe to the Library of Congress, Washington. Bookstacks present the most difficult lighting problem of all, since a lamp from above cannot provide evenly distributed lighting down the vertical plane of books on shelves. The whole situation can be improved from the start by using light-coloured light-reflecting surfaces throughout the stackrooms. The reflected light from a white surface may be as much as 80 per cent, whereas dark colours reflect as little as 10 per cent and thus absorb and waste the light.

Probably the best source of artificial light for bookstacks is either silica-frosted filament lights or fluorescent tubes, which must have reflectors to direct the light downwards. Switches at the end of each range of stack should control the lights of each aisle.

Gerould, J. T. *The college library building*. Scribner, 1932. pp. 74-77, 91-101.

Hilton Smith, R. D. *Public library lighting*. Vol. 1. *Natural lighting*. Vol. 2. *Artificial lighting*. Gravesend, A. J. Philip, 1937-38.

Kraehenbuehl, J. O. 'Lighting the library.' *College and Res. Libr.*, 1941, 2, 231-6.

Luckiesh and Moss. *Reading as a visual task*. New York, 1942.

Ketch, J. M. *Library lighting*. (Paper at A.L.A. Convention, July, 1947.) *Bull. Amer. Inst. Archit.*, 1947, Sept., 34-42.

Electric Lamp Manufacturers' Association Lighting Service Bureau, London. *Electric illumination handbooks*, 1952.

Walker, T. MacCullum. 'Library lighting: an introduction.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 462-71.

Allen, Wm. 'Illumination.' In *Specification*, 1955. Architectural Press, 903-29.

Illuminating Engineering Society, London. *Code for lighting in buildings*, 1955.

Roper, J. F. 'The golden key' (on library lighting). *Lighting service* (E.L.M.A.), 1956, 3, No. 8.

A.T.

Limited edition An edition issued with a relatively small number of copies, to which consecutive numbers are generally assigned; sometimes issued with superior paper or binding, in addition to a regular edition. A special page often states the facts of the edition limit and the number, and contains also the signa-

ture of the author, publisher or printer (*A.L.A. Gloss.*, *Book. Gloss.*).

Limp binding A soft-covered binding, in which stiff boards have been omitted.

Limp leather A style of binding in full leather, without stiff boards.

Lindsay, James Ludovic 26th Earl of Crawford and 9th Earl of Balcarres (1847-1913). Best known as a bibliophile and scientist, published in 1879 the *Classification scheme and index to the same of the library of the [Dun Echt] Observatory*, perhaps the first published modification of the *Decimal classification* in Britain for special library purposes.

G.J.

Line block A printing plate of zinc or copper, produced photo-mechanically without the use of a half-tone screen from which may be printed a reproduction of any line drawing. Wood line blocks were used before the invention of photography and often display high artistic skill.

Line division mark A vertical line or double vertical lines used in bibliographical transcription to indicate the place of the ends of lines. Actual practice varies between bibliographers. Also called line end stroke, dividing stroke.

Line ending The right-hand ending of a line in a manuscript or printed book, sometimes cited as a means of bibliographical reference between editions of a work.

Line engraving An intaglio process of engraving on a copper or steel plate by means of a burin or graver.

See also COPPER ENGRAVING; COPPER-PLATE ENGRAVING; STEEL ENGRAVING; WOOD ENGRAVING.

Linen 1. A book-cloth made of flax. 2. A book-cloth pattern that resembles the texture of linen is known as 'linen-grained.'

Linen paper Strictly, any paper made from linen rags. The term is often applied to machine-made paper finished with a pattern simulating cloth.

Lining paper The paper used for lining the backs of heavy books, supplementing the lining fabric.

Linked books Separately bound books whose relationship with each other is indicated in various ways, such as collective title-pages, mention in contents or other preliminary leaves, continuous paging or continuous series or signature marks (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Lino cut Designs cut out of linoleum and also the impressions taken from them after inking.

Linoleum blocks Relief surfaces or blocks cut from linoleum and used for illustration purposes. May be adapted for electrotyping.

Linoleum drypoint A linoleum block engraved as in the drypoint process.

Linotype A mechanical method of type composition by which the lines of text are set together in slugs as distinct from separate letters.

Literals Errors made by the printer in setting type, chiefly through confusion of similar letters or bad manuscript.

Literary warrant E. Wyndham Hulme, (1859-1954),¹ contended that book classification cannot be based on philosophical or scientific considerations alone. He considered that the parts (the books) should be fitted together systematically to form a whole.

These views² first appeared in the *Library Association Record* in 1911-12 and have gained more consideration latterly than they appeared to do at the time.

This basing of book classification on 'literary warrant,' sometimes known as 'bibliographical warrant,' (i.e. according to the actual groupings into which books tend to fall for use, ignoring minute classes for which there is no literature, but including composite classes for which there is a literature) had already been achieved in the Library of Congress classification and Hulme notices that fact.

He carried out his theories in the Patent Office Library and was of some influence in the work on classification of Ernest A. Savage,³ Librarian of Edinburgh and advocate of the Library of Congress classification scheme. See also HULME, E. W.

¹ Obituary in *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 500.

² Hulme, E. W. *Principles of book classification*. 1950 (A.A.L. Reprints, No. 1).

³ Savage, E. A. *Manual of book classification and display for public libraries*. 1946.

Literature search Particularly in a special library, a systematic and exhaustive search for published material bearing on a specific problem or subject, with the preparation of abstracts for the use of the researcher; an intermediate stage between reference work and research, and to be differentiated from both (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Litho-offset See OFFSET LITHOGRAPHY.

Litho papers Papers specially made for use in lithographic printing, having dimensional stability to ensure correct register. The paper is usually made the narrow way across the machine, and is basically esparto.

Lithography A planographic process of illustration using the principle that greasy printing ink repels water and porous stone absorbs the liquid, thus rejecting ink. Invented by Senefelder in 1797, the process has since been adapted to colour printing, and has been greatly improved by the photo-mechanical offset method.

Lithotint An addition to early monochrome lithographic prints giving the effect of a tinted drawing without the elaboration of several colours, only obtainable by using more than one stone.

Live matter Composed matter, letterpress or illustrations, ready for printing, held for future use (see also **STANDING TYPE**).

Loan methods Economical administration of a lending library depends on the method of recording loans. Not only does the process take up much staff time but it affects almost all other tasks. The form of the records governs the facility with which overdues, reserves and stocktaking are dealt with and may have an influence on accession methods. Any permanent records kept are of value in book selection and withdrawal.

A written record of each loan is made in reference and research libraries and also in some university and school libraries. Such records are made in multiple copies to provide up to three files—by date, by book and by

LOAN METHODS

borrower. Larger research libraries have found the use of continuous-form stationery an economy. In public lending libraries written records are made only for special categories of loans, such as those made through the post; for dealing with thousands of personal borrowers, faster techniques have been evolved.

The intending borrower's right to use the library is usually checked once at the time of registration and thereafter the production of a membership card or reader's ticket is accepted as sufficient proof of identity. This practice has existed since the earliest days of lending libraries, but the methods of recording loans have been progressively simplified. Even in days of closed access the full written record was reduced to ledger charging, sometimes combined with an indicator as a book file, and, later, various forms of card charging replaced the ledger. Pocket-card charging was adopted almost universally in this country with open access, but was less used in America where the Newark charging method was preferred.

American libraries have sometimes achieved economy by employing non-professional staff for charging and its ancillary tasks, and machine systems such as the Dickman and the Gaylord Electric Charger have had some success. More recent methods include the use of punched cards for charging and various systems, such as audio- and photo-charging, based on the principle of 'transaction charging.'

A few libraries in this country adopted the 'Dickman system,' but experiments have been mainly confined to minor modifications of the popular pocket-card method. An interesting variant of punched-card charging was tried at Walthamstow and, more recently, Westminster abandoned charging altogether by introducing the 'Token' control method which has since been adopted by several other libraries. Most methods have been described by their inventors or advocates and general textbooks of librarianship devote a chapter to loan methods. There is, however, surprisingly little general literature.

Brown, J. D. 'The history and description of library charging systems.' *Libr. World*, 1898-99, I, 75-76, 110-13, etc. to 1900-01, 3, 3-6.

Maidment, W. R. 'Book issue methods: a systematic approach.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 53-56.

Geer, H. T. *Charging systems*. Chicago, A.L.A., 1955.

W.R.M.

Loans See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Local collections (classification) See CLASSIFICATION, SPECIAL. Local Collections.

Local history collections The collection of materials for the study of Local History was one of the first tasks to which public libraries established under the 1850 Library Act directed themselves, and by 1900 many libraries could point with pride to collections which had been assiduously built up by librarians with a real interest in their locality and an earnest desire to preserve and perpetuate its claims to distinction. Local collections have grown in number and importance until to-day every district or regional area has its collection and not infrequently there are several. The problem is often that there are too many covering a particular area, rather than too few.

The public or university library is the best agency for this purpose of collecting local historical material and of making it available to the public. Little opposition to the collection of printed material was encountered, but libraries have had to fight hard in the past for the right to the custody of manuscript and archival material. This aspect of the subject is dealt with in the article on ARCHIVES and will be discussed only incidentally here.

It is impossible, within the confines of a short article, to detail the various kinds of material, printed, manuscript and graphic, which should be collected to form a Local Collection, or to treat fully the special problems of conservation and administration which arise when this material has been collected. For information on these subjects the reader is referred to the works mentioned in the bibliography. Suffice it to say that the collection and selection of material for the Local History department should be organized just as deliberately as that for the general departments of the library. Haphazard methods will no longer serve if our files of

current material are to be kept up to date and older files completed. Nor is the department a storehouse of dead information—it should contain up-to-the-minute data on local affairs and its scope may be extended to cover many of the activities of the Civic Information Bureau and the Municipal Reference Library.

The staffing of the department is of supreme importance. It should be in the charge of a specialist, perhaps a graduate, certainly one trained in historical studies and with a wide knowledge of the bibliographical basis of historical research. The appointment of a trained archivist is essential if the library possesses any considerable number of archives or documents or if it aspires to become a manorial depository. The staff should be responsible for cataloguing, indexing and classifying the contents of the collection, even when these processes are normally performed by a Central Cataloguing department, since there are many peculiar problems in dealing with local historical material which only intimate knowledge will solve.

The Local Collection is, perhaps, the one field of librarianship where uniformity has not been enforced, and in which the practising librarian can still exercise the arts of his trade. He can settle problems of cataloguing, classification, storage, etc., as and when the occasion arises and in the light of local conditions, which may make imperative modifications of established practice and techniques. Solutions can often best be found by study of the particular problem in its relation to these factors, rather than to national schemes and centralized methods.

All kinds of subjects are written about from the local angle, and the Local Collection is really a microcosm of the general field of bibliography. But a work is admitted to this section because it is written with specific reference to the locality or a small part of it, and thus in classifying local material we have to decide whether the topic or the place shall be the primary basis of division. This question is fundamental, and the general principle should be settled at the outset and this means that we may have either a subject or a topographical basis for our classification scheme.

If the collection covers only a single town the topographic divisions may be unnecessary or may be relegated to a subsidiary status, and one of the standard classification schemes may be adopted but, as a rule, a Local Classification consists of a topographic scheme with subject divisions added. This means that it is difficult to achieve a pure notation. It is better if the topographic divisions follow the modern administrative areas, although sometimes there is an attempt to bring contiguous areas together by basing the primary order on the old hundreds, wapentakes or rapes. The subject tables may, and frequently are, taken from the general scheme in use in the library, but Dewey and other standard schemes are not really satisfactory for classing local material.

The Local Collection needs an extremely detailed, yet concentrated, classification. Certain fields such as History (especially the local and period divisions), Genealogy, Social Sciences and Politics assume a far greater importance than in a general collection. Special material, such as newscuttings and prints, also raise problems of classification and indexing. There may be a case here for applying Ranganathan's faceted classification, by which a special scheme can be evolved for any particular purpose by applying correct principles. Bliss, too, is more satisfactory than Dewey for this purpose, and Mr. L. A. Burgess at Southampton has successfully adapted and expanded this scheme to the special problems of topographical and local collection classification.

Cataloguing raises no special problems, although much more use must be made of analytical entries, annotations, cross references and added entries. It is because these are simpler to make and to understand in the dictionary catalogue that I prefer this to the classified type for a Local Collection, especially if it is constructed on the 'unit card' principle. Subject entries are equally, if not more, important than author entries to the local student, and there is no logical reason for providing fewer details in these. Double entry, under both Subject and Place, is often necessary, but subject headings need only be included in so far as they are of local interest. With this system it is possible to endow the

LOCAL HISTORY COLLECTIONS

dictionary catalogue with many of the advantages of the classified form by making the subject entry under the specific topic, and by using more comprehensive headings under places. Indexing of much of the special material, maps, prints, photographs, local papers and magazines, also poses problems too numerous to be detailed here, and the reader is referred to H. A. Sharp's *Cataloguing: a text-book for use in libraries*, 4th ed., 1948 and J. Ormerod's *How to catalogue a local collection* (Birmingham, C. Combridge, 1933) for further information.

The exploitation of the collection is a question to which little attention has been given by librarians. We have done much to encourage specialists in various fields to make use of the facilities offered by the Public Library service, but the historian, especially of Local History, is too often left to his own devices. Publicity in the form of exhibitions and lectures to local organizations is a well-established feature of many libraries. The local charters and archives, regalia and plate, guild records, local maps, prints, photographs and drawings, as well as printed material, form the basis of attractive displays, either in the library or in collaboration with the local Museum or Art Gallery. But there are many other ways in which the energetic librarian can interest his public in, and encourage the fuller use of, the materials which are available for study. Educational potentialities must not be ignored; good relations must be cultivated with the editors and reporters of local newspapers; the co-operation of local societies and organizations and of the religious and charitable groups in the community must be sought. In these days, too, a liberal policy of loaning local works pays good dividends, especially when these are made to organized classes or to students living at a distance. In the latter case the book may be sent to the nearest library. It is for this reason that the opportunity of acquiring duplicate copies for loan should not be neglected.

The librarian in charge of this collection may, by various means, stimulate and encourage that interest in Local History which is so evident to-day and thus make the department the focal point for all local historical activities in the area. He may assist the collec-

tion and recording of material by giving full assistance to schools, adult groups and Women's Institutes in their local projects, and also to the wider Regional and Photographic Survey schemes.

A set of the 6 in. (or 25 in. for urban areas) Ordnance Survey maps should be maintained, on which should be recorded discoveries such as the remains of industrial or archaeological sites or finds, with bibliographical references to further sources of information. These fuller details may be recorded in a card-index. Even field, street and minor place-names may be thus recorded on maps, which should be sent periodically to the Archaeology Branch of the Ordnance Survey for checking. Some counties, such as Berkshire and Shropshire, have organized Local History recording schemes, in which village recorders or correspondents send in, on standard forms, details of historical information which comes to light concerning their area. Other local projects can be helped and augmented by this department—the compilation of a complete county bibliography, such as is now envisaged for Lancashire; the local aspect of the work of the National Register of Archives, which is seeking to list the various collections of records in each area; the survey of English folk-lore being made by the English Department of University College, London. Lesser schemes are no less important, such as lists of local societies, with addresses of their secretaries; a list of lecturers on local subjects which would be available to groups and societies, and a Local Events diary such as many libraries already maintain. Such corporate activities, of course, should not be allowed to overshadow the primary functions of the department which are twofold—the conservation of local historical material in good condition for posterity, and the encouragement of individual research into Local History.

It is in the field of Local History that the impact of photography as an aid to research has been most clearly felt, although its full potentialities are far from realization in this country. No library can hope to collect all the material relating to its area—much of it is already in other hands. The photostat, microfilm and the microcard enable it to obtain copies of original material from other

libraries. The British Museum, the Public Record Office, the John Rylands Library, the National Library of Wales and the university libraries of Oxford (The Bodleian) and Cambridge are obvious examples of libraries whose resources are of interest to most local libraries. This aspect is of great importance to the scholar, who has not always the leisure to visit all the libraries and record repositories which might possess material to interest him. Where photocopying is impossible we may still record the principal items of local material in other repositories, so that the student may at least be informed of its existence.

Liaison with the local and national bodies is extremely important if the department is to take its true place in the life of the community. If the library aspires to the status of a record repository it should co-operate in the work of the British Records Association and of the National Register of Archives. The work of other organizations, too, impinges on certain aspects of local history study—the Council for the Preservation of Business Archives, the British Record Society, the Newcomen Society, the English Place-name Society, the Folk-lore Society and several others. The work of the Standing Conference for Local History, sponsored by the National Council for Social Service, and organized through county Local History Committees, should also be remembered. By such means the library will gain a reputation in the sphere of Local History, which is essential if the Local Collection is to be fully utilized and enabled to take its place amongst the town's cultural amenities.

Historical Association. *Local history handlist: a short bibliography and list of sources for the study of local history and antiquities*. London, Staples Press, 1947.

Hobbs, J. L. *Libraries and the materials of local history*. London, Grafton, 1948.

Ormerod, J. *How to catalogue a local collection*. Birmingham, C. Combridge, 1933.

Parker, D. *Local history: how to gather it, write it and publish it*. New York, Social Science Research Council, 1944.

Sayers, W. C. B. *Library local collections*. London, Allen and Unwin, 1939. (Practical Library Handbooks, No. 7.)

Tate, W. E. *The parish chest: a study of the*

records of parochial administration in England. Cambridge University Press, 1946.

J.L.H.

Local list 1. A geographical list in Cutter's *Expansive classification*, with numerical symbols to be used with any subject designation to indicate local division or relation. 2. A list prepared by W. P. Cutter, giving geographical and political divisions, accompanied by numbers, for use in dividing material geographically. 3. A list of books relating to a particular locality, as a town or country (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Location mark A letter, word, group of words or some distinguishing character added to catalogue records, often in conjunction with the call number, to indicate that a book is shelved in a certain place, as in a special collection. Also called 'location symbol' and 'call number.'

Location symbol 1. An identifying mark, such as a combination of letters, used in a bibliography, union list or union catalogue to indicate a library or a collection where a copy of a given work may be found. 2. A location mark (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Locking-up Type is made tight and firm in the chase by the insertion of quoins and galleys before being put in the press for printing. After this stage, corrections are difficult and not anticipated by the printer.

Loft-dried Hand and mould-made papers are dried by suspension in a dry airy loft. Formerly the sheets were hung over a rope made from cow hair, but later were rested on hessian cloths.

Logotype A small group of letters cast as a unit. As evolved by Walter about 1784, groups of frequent occurrence were cast together to aid the compositor, but failed through their cumbrous nature and trade opposition. The term is sometimes used in advertising for a given style or form of name already held in type (see also *LIGATURE*).

Long page A page of a book with a larger number of type lines than the remainder of the text.

LONG PRIMER

Long primer An obsolete name of a size of type equal to about 10 point.

Look-through The appearance of paper when held up against strong light. By this test the dispersion of the fibres may be ascertained, and consequently, according to the purpose of the paper, its strength.

Loose back See OPEN BACK.

Lost book 1. A book known only by allusions to it or from quotations in the writings of contemporary authors. 2. A library book

lost by a borrower, never returned by a borrower or lost from shelves of the library (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Lower case 1. Letters other than capitals, *i.e.* the minuscules. 2. Name given to the compositor's case which holds these letters. In proof correcting, shown by l.c.

Ludlow typograph A composing and line-setting machine which attempts to cast type in lines or slugs as accurately as that done by hand. It is possible to cast letters of a given point size on to bodies of a larger size thus avoiding leading during composition.

M

M.F. Mill or machine-finish (paper).

M.G. Machine glazed; paper with a high glaze on one side only.

Machine-finished paper Paper made smooth but not very glossy by means of calender rolls.

Machine revise A proof printed when the forme is on the printing machine, in order to check the quality of the impression and also to include any final corrections that may be made. Also called machine proof.

Machine sized See **SIZE**.

Mackle A sheet spoiled by a blurred impression, due to mechanical difficulties.

Main card A catalogue card bearing the main entry for a work, and also, usually on the reverse side, the full tracing of all added entries, etc.

Main entry The principal catalogue entry for a work, giving all the information necessary for its complete identification. As a rule, the main entry is the author entry (since the author is responsible for the book's existence and the work is most likely to be looked for by his name). Save where unit cataloguing is practised any added entries necessary will contain less information than the main entry.

A standard main entry comprises five sections, each concerned with the provision of particular items of information:

1. **Heading.** Chosen by the cataloguer, normally in conformity with a code of cataloguing as to choice and rendering. Usually the name of the author.
2. **Title.** A transcript of the title-page giving full title and sub-title, the name of the author and any editor, translator, etc., and the statement of edition if other than the first.
3. **Imprint.** The place(s) of publication, name(s) of the publisher(s) and the publication date.

4. **Collation.** The number of volumes comprising the work, or, the statement of pagination if in one volume, the numbers of each kind of illustration included, the size (height of volume, and width if of unusual shape) and the name of the series.

5. **Notes.** Specification of the contents, additional bibliographical information and annotation:

Johnson, George Alfred.

The planning of public buildings: a treatise for architects and students, by George A. Johnson; edited by P. G. Warner. 2nd ed. London, Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1938.

xi, [2], 248 p. front., 16 plans, tab., diagrs. 25½ cm. (Industrial design and civil engineering series—v. 3.)

Contents: pt. 1. Civic.—pt. 2. Educational.—pt. 3. Industrial.—pt. 4. Military. Each part includes a short bibliography. Glossary of terms p. 234-40.

[Annotation]

In a card catalogue the main entry bears also tracings indicating all the other headings under which the work in question is entered in the catalogue. When used as a master card it may carry in addition tracings of references and a record of other pertinent data concerning the cataloguing of the work.

Main heading The heading adopted for a main entry, as distinct from the headings of any added entries considered necessary for the same book.

Main title That part of the title which precedes the sub-title or alternative title.

Maioli, Thomas A book collector who lived during the early part of the 16th century, a contemporary of Grolier. The volumes which he had bound for his library by the best French workmen usually bore the Latin

MAJUSCULE

lettering *Thomas Mooli et Amicorum*, but his real name is not known, or his nationality.

In hand binding, *Maioli* is the name for a style contemporary with the early examples of Jean Grolier. Generally composed of a framework of shields or medallions, with a design of scrollwork flowing through it. Portions of the design are usually studded with gold dots. Ornaments are of a Moresque character.

Majuscule An uncial letter used in Greek and Latin manuscripts of the 4th and 5th centuries A.D. as distinguished from a minuscule or small more cursive hand. Majuscule in French is synonymous with Upper Case.

Make-ready Detailed preparation of a forme before printing. Any traces of uneven impression must be removed by under- or over-laying.

Make-up To transfer type from the galley and arrange it in pages in the forme. An instruction to the printer to proceed with this.

Malicious damage See OFFENCES.

Manila 1. A paper-making fibre. 2. Manila papers. A generic term for a wide variety of fairly stiff paper used for light covers, e.g. for pamphlets. Not usually made from genuine manila fibre. Fourdrinier-made manilas are supplied glazed or unglazed in many colours, and are suitable for files or folders. Pasted manila is stiffer, more bulky and stronger.

Manorial documents Under the Law of Property Act, 1922, as amended, the Master of the Rolls has power to transfer manorial documents to the Public Record Office or a public library or museum or historical or antiquarian society willing to receive them. Under the same Act he may require information from the governing body of any public library, museum or society so that he may satisfy himself that the documents are in proper custody and are being properly preserved.

Manorial Documents Rules were made in 1926 (S.R. & O. 1926, No. 1310) to implement the provisions of the Act.

A.R.H.

Manuscript catalogue A catalogue in which all the entries have been handwritten. Sometimes extended to include entries which are individually typewritten.

Marble papers Coloured papers used for end-papers or sometimes to cover the boards of a book, especially one of a limited edition. The hand process is to place a sheet of stout paper face down on a bath of gum tragacanth on which oil colours have been laid and combed into suitable patterns. The paper is raised, dried and flint glazed. Machine-made marble papers are much inferior.

Margin Blank parts of the page outside the text area. The four margins are named head or top; fore-edge, the outer or side; back, inner, inside or gutter. The proportions accepted for book work are that the bottom is double the top, and the inside margins a half or two-thirds of the outer margins. These proportions are fundamentally those revived by William Morris.

Marginal notes Annotations in the side margins of the page. Also side notes, hanging shoulder notes, marginalia.

Marking 1. The placing of call numbers on books and other library material. 2. In serials work, the placing of a mark of ownership, with note about disposition, on each piece checked (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Marks of omission Three dots in a group (. . .) used in catalogues and bibliographies to show omissions from matter transcribed. Commonly known as 'three dots.'

Master The original plate or stencil in duplicating processes from which copies are made. In photocopying, the negative from which a positive print is made.

Master card A main entry in a card catalogue bearing tracings indicating all the added entries, including subject entries, and all references whether from forms of name or from subjects, used in respect of the work catalogued, together with a note of the sources used and other information pertinent to its cataloguing.

Master catalogue A catalogue, usually the official union card catalogue of a library

system and situated in the central library or the cataloguing department, in which every main entry is a master card. The master catalogue, normally maintained by the cataloguers, is the official up-to-date record of catalogued stock and an essential source of information for the cataloguers.

Masthead A statement of the name, ownership, etc., of a publication. It is usually at the head of the editorial page of a newspaper. In a magazine, it is usually on the editorial or contents page. Also called 'flag' (*Book. Gloss.*).

Matrix 1. A copper mould used in casting type. Each letter is engraved on to a steel punch which is struck into each mould. 2. A papier-mâché mould used for stereotyping; or a mould from which electrotypes are cast.

Matter Type whether in composition or standing. Described as live or dead; open (leaded) or solid (without leads). Traditional terms 'fat and lean' indicate the amount of open space or the difficulty of the manuscript.

Mearne, Samuel A famous English binder of the 17th century who became royal binder to Charles II. He is noted for the so-called cottage style of ornamentation (rectangle of parallel lines which breaks outward like the gable of a roof). He died in 1683.

Measure The width of line to which the compositor's stick is set. Usually a specified number of 12 point ems.

Mechanical wood Also called Groundwood process. Wood is reduced to fibres by grinding and not by a chemical process. High yield, but lower purity is attained, and the paper is only suitable for ephemeral matter, e.g. newsprint.

Mediaan system Line measurement system used in Belgium in conjunction with the Fournier system of measuring type bodies.

Medical bibliography The indexes to medical literature are probably more complete than those serving any other field of knowledge. Nevertheless, the enormous increase in the number of periodical publications during the present century has brought about a crisis in medical bibliography. Some idea of

the magnitude of the problems to be faced, and of steps that may be taken to meet them, will be found in Brodman (1954) and in the Report of the Co-ordinating Committee on Abstracting and Indexing in the Medical and Biological Sciences (UNESCO, 1950).

Early bibliographies Medical bibliographies were produced by Symphorien Champier (1506), Otto Brunfels (1530), Remaeus Fuchs (1541), Paschalis Gallus (1590), Wolfgang Jobst (1556), Alfonsus Lupeus (1589) and Israel Spach (1591), but these works are now only of historical interest. Three medical bibliographies published in the 17th century—those of J. A. van der Linden (1637), Martin Lipen (1679) and Cornelius à Beughem (1681 and 1696)—approach the modern form. Beughem was the first bibliographer to index the transactions of the learned societies which were beginning to assume importance in his day. The great bibliographies of anatomy (1774–77), surgery (1774–75) and medicine (1776–88) of Albrecht von Haller represent a stupendous achievement and are still indispensable to the medical historian. Wilhelm Gottfried Ploucquet's *Literatura medica digesta* (1808–14) is a comprehensive subject index to medical literature, which lists not only books, journal articles and theses, but also gives analytic entries for 'Opera omnia' and collections of clinical case records. An equally impressive work is the *Medicinisches Schriftsteller Lexicon* of A. C. P. Callisen in 33 volumes (1830–45), an author index covering the period 1750 to 1830. Richard Neale's *Medical digest* (1877, 1886, 1891 and 1899), a classified list of articles in journals, is still useful for some purposes.

The earliest medical books are dealt with in A. C. Klebs, *Incunabula scientifica et medica* (1938) and in the catalogues of the incunabula in the Wellcome Historical Medical Library by F. N. L. Poynter (1954), in the Army Medical Library (Cleveland) by D. M. Schulian and F. E. Sommer (1948) and in the Boston Medical Library by J. F. Ballard (1944). Publication of C. F. Mayer's *Bibliography of XVI century medical authors* (1941) has not proceeded beyond the first fascicle. There are many bibliographies of individual medical authors of all periods, outstanding examples being those of Ambrose

MEDICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

Paré by Janet Doe (1937) and of Edward Jenner by W. R. Le Fanu (1951).

Modern bibliographies The *Index catalogue* of the Library of the Surgeon General's Office, conceived by J. S. Billings, has been described as America's greatest contribution to medicine. Its 58 volumes, issued in four complementary series between 1880 and 1955, provide about six million references to world medical literature. Books, pamphlets, theses, etc., are listed under both author and subject; journal articles are indexed by subject only. The *Index catalogue* is to cease publication with the 11th volume of the 4th Series (Mi-Mz). A supplementary series of five printed volumes is to be issued covering the books, pamphlets and theses acquired by the library prior to April, 1950. The *Armed forces medical library catalogue*, published annually since 1948, records books and journals catalogued during the year. As a complementary work to the *Index catalogue* Billings produced the *Index medicus*, a guide to current medical literature. The *Index medicus* began in 1879 and ran (with a gap in 1900-02, filled by the *Bibliographia medica*, Paris) until 1926. In 1926 it was incorporated with the *Quarterly cumulative index to current medical literature*, which had been appearing since 1916, to form the *Quarterly cumulative index medicus*. The *Current list of medical literature* is issued by the Armed Forces Medical Library; it began as a weekly publication in 1941 but is now a monthly. Other indexing services of international scope include the *Bulletin analytique* (Paris), *Medizinischer literaturnachweis* (Berlin) and *Index medico biologico* (Rome). Many countries publish purely national medical indexes, notably Belgium, Denmark, Japan, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and the U.S.S.R. The number of bibliographies of special subjects is legion. Notable examples are Hoff and Fulton's *Bibliography of aviation medicine* (1942), Shock's *Classified bibliography of gerontology and geriatrics* (1951) and Keffer's *Bibliography of leprosy* (1948). Numerous changes have been made in the major indexing tools in recent years—a healthy sign of adaptation to ever-changing conditions and demands. Owing to the time-lag in the publication of printed indexes many librarians have to compile their own indexes to current

journals, either temporarily on cards or in the form of duplicated bulletins. The *Garrison-Morton medical bibliography* by L. T. Morton (2nd ed., 1954), a classified and annotated list of important contributions to medical literature from the earliest times, is indispensable to all medical librarians.

Periodicals Apart from library catalogues and general guides such as the *World list* and the *British union-catalogue*, there are a large number of special catalogues and finding lists of medical journals. *World medical periodicals* (WHO and UNESCO, 1953) lists 3,908 current journals and indicates sources of abstracts. Other useful works are R. T. Leiper's *Periodicals of medicine and the allied sciences in British libraries* (1923) and W. R. Le Fanu's *British periodicals of medicine, 1684-1938* (1938).

Abstracting journals Important abstracting organs include *Abstracts of world medicine*, *Excerpta medica* and the German *Zentralblätter*, both of which are issued in sections devoted to special departments of medicine, *Bulletin of hygiene*, *Tropical diseases bulletin* and *Tuberculosis index*. For details see *Index bibliographicus*, Vol. 1 (UNESCO and F.I.D., 1952) and Brodman (1954).

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Fulton, J. F. 'The great medical bibliographers.' 1951.

Gallagher, W. M. 'The preparation of medical bibliographies.' *Bull. Med. Lib. Ass.*, 1954, 42, 23-29.

Goodall, A. L. 'The use of the medical library.' *Glasg. Med. J.*, 1954, 35, 366-74.

Morton, L. T. *How to use a medical library*. 2nd ed., 1952.

Postell, W. D. *Applied medical bibliography for students*. 1955.

W. J. B.

Medical libraries *History* That large collection of medical books existed in ancient Egypt, Assyria and China may be deduced from the surviving literature, but there is little direct evidence regarding the organization of libraries. The chief Egyptian medical papyri range in date from 1900 to 1200 B.C., and as they are mostly compendia based on earlier and diverse sources they point to the existence of a considerable medical literature.

The Tell el Amarna tablets (1412-1326 B.C.) contain some medical material, but the early Egyptian collections do not compare with the great 'libraries' of Assyria. A papyrus from the Fayum (3rd century B.C.) contains part of an inventory of a library comprising 132 rolls of philosophy and 296 rolls of medical works. The library of Ashurbanipal, King of Assyria (668-626 B.C.) provided 30,000 fragments of cuneiform clay tablets, of which 800 were medical. Hippocrates, the Father of Medicine, cites a number of earlier authors, but does not recommend any books. Harakleitos, physician and priest of Aesculapius, is said to have presented his whole library as a prize at a festival honouring the god of medicine. The two libraries at Alexandria—the Brucheum and the Serapeum—were the most famous of the ancient world; and as Alexandria was the greatest centre of medical instruction and research it is safe to assume that its libraries contained a large number of medical works. The Romans in general despised medicine, but writers like Pliny and Celsus could not have compiled their encyclopaedic works if they had not had access to fairly rich public or private collections. The libraries of Byzantium were well equipped with medical works as is proved by the survival of a number of compendia made from older works preserved there; many of these found their way to Western Europe after the fall of Constantinople in 1453. During the long period of Islamic supremacy in science (9th-11th century A.D.) great medical libraries were built up in the East and in Spain. Haroun-al Rashid sent special envoys to Constantinople to obtain Greek medical books. The great library at Cordova is reputed to have had 225,000 volumes, a large proportion of these being medical. Avicenna has left a description of the medical treasures of the Royal Library at Bokhara. The earliest founders of monastic libraries in the 3rd century A.D. made provision for the custody and control of books; this obligation was strongest in the Benedictine monasteries. From the 9th century onwards many catalogues of monastic libraries are extant. Christchurch, Canterbury, had over 200 medical manuscripts about A.D. 1300 and a Dover Priory catalogue of 1389 lists 118 medical

books, including Hippocrates, Galen and Rhazes. Evidence for the use of medical books by the mendicant orders is very scanty. As soon as medical teaching began in the newly founded universities medical libraries in a special sense were created, but their growth was very slow. At Paris there is record of a book loan in 1391 and an inventory made by the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine in 1395. In 1509 the Faculty ordered its books to be chained. The University Library at Cambridge possessed 122 volumes in 1424, but only five of them dealt with medicine. The earliest medical libraries of any size were those of the medical corporations; and most of these, although they have passed through many vicissitudes, have maintained their existence to the present day. Some of them have kept their libraries up to date, but others are now only repositories of the older literature. The great corporation libraries include those of the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons of London, Edinburgh and Dublin, and the Royal Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow. One of the oldest medical libraries with a continuous history is that of the Royal College of Physicians of London (1518). The next great impetus to the growth of medical libraries was given by the foundation of medical societies, among the earlier being the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh (1737), the Medical Society of London (1773) and the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society of London (1805). In 1907 the last named society amalgamated with 17 other societies to form the Royal Society of Medicine, which maintains the leading British medical library. Many of the London Medical School Libraries are more than a century old, and some of the provincial libraries trace their origin to 18th century collections formed by the local infirmary or private medical school. Many country practitioners were dependent upon small Book Clubs which they organized themselves on a subscription basis. In general, library service appears to have been remarkably efficient, but it must be remembered that the medical reader had to cope with only a limited output of books and that there were very few professional journals. There is still an enormous concentration of medical

MEDICAL LIBRARIES

libraries in London, but in recent years the amalgamation of old, and the formation of new libraries in the provinces has done much to 'spread the load.'

American libraries The Armed Forces Medical Library was founded in 1836. Under the great John Shaw Billings (1838-1913) it grew from about 5,000 volumes to over 100,000. It now contains about 1,000,000 titles, and because of its size, and equally on account of the services which it has always rendered to medical bibliography, ranks as the most important medical library in the world.

The other great medical libraries of the United States include the New York Academy of Medicine, Boston Medical Library, College of Physicians of Philadelphia, Medical Society of the County of Kings, William H. Welch Library at Johns Hopkins, John Crerar Library of Chicago, Columbia University Library and the Yale Medical Library. (For information on these and on the medical libraries of many other countries see *Proceedings* of the First International Congress on Medical Librarianship (1954) and the references below.)

Private medical libraries Many of the world's greatest book collectors have been medical men: it is sufficient to mention the names of Hieronymus Muenzer, Hartmann Schedel, Ulrich Ellenbog, Nicolaus Pol, Georg Kloss and Erik Waller on the Continent, and those of Bernard, Wright, Mead, Askew, Sloane, Wm. Hunter, Sinbald, Dun and Worth in Britain. The library of Sir William Osler is preserved at McGill University and the combined libraries of Harvey Cushing, Arnold Klebs and John F. Fulton at Yale.

Scope and functions Medical libraries form a large and well-defined group of special libraries, but within this group there is great diversity in type, scope and purpose. Classifying on a functional basis, i.e. according to the class of reader they are designed to serve, we have: 1. *University and medical school libraries*. These cater chiefly for undergraduate medical students, but also to some extent for the teaching and research staffs (as for example at St. Bartholomew's and the other London teaching hospitals). Other libraries in this group serve the staff and students of post-graduate schools, such as the Postgraduate

Medical School of London, the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, and the numerous Institutes which form part of the British Postgraduate Medical Federation. 2. *Medical societies libraries*. These meet the needs of their own subscribing members, who may be consultants or general practitioners. They vary greatly in size and importance, ranging from the Royal Society of Medicine (200,000 volumes) to small local societies with no more than a few hundred books. 3. *Research libraries*. Here again there is great variation. Among the most important are the libraries of the National Institute for Medical Research and the Lister Institute. 4. *Hospital libraries*. The majority of non-teaching hospitals have reference libraries for the use of their staffs, but they vary enormously in their scope and efficiency. Hospital libraries for patients being concerned with supply of general literature to readers in a special environment, do not come within the scope of medical librarianship. This service is in many places undertaken by the public library, and in some cases (as at Swansea) the public library may maintain a professional medical library on behalf of a Regional Hospital Board. 5. *Governmental libraries*. Apart from the library of the Ministry of Health many governmental libraries are wholly or largely concerned with medical literature. The great national libraries, such as the British Museum and the Science Library, are very rich in purely medical material. 6. *Industrial medical libraries*. These comprise the important and rapidly expanding libraries maintained by the chemical and pharmaceutical firms for their research workers and for their information services. 7. *Commercial circulating libraries*. The outstanding example is H. K. Lewis & Co.'s Medical and Scientific Circulating Library, which has rendered unique service to medical students and practitioners since 1844.

It should be noted that many libraries could be placed in more than one of the above classes: the National Institute for Medical Research, for example, is both a governmental and a research library. In the universities, medical libraries may be more or less autonomous or they may be administered as departmental libraries under the close

supervision of the university librarian. In most of the large provincial centres the medical libraries of the university and the local medical society have amalgamated. Some medical libraries cover the whole of medicine and its ancillary sciences, while others, such as those of the postgraduate medical institutes in London, are devoted to one specialty, e.g. ophthalmology or orthopaedics.

In his *List of medical libraries and information bureaux in the British Isles* (1946), Le Fanu listed 140 medical libraries and some 50 of these could probably be regarded as major collections. Global statistics are unreliable, but Doe (1943) listed 36 medical libraries possessing 100,000 or more volumes and 370 medical libraries outside North America having 10,000 volumes. It is quite certain that there has been a great increase in both the number and size of medical libraries of all kinds during the last 20 years; this is particularly so in the British Commonwealth, Latin America, the U.S.S.R. and in the less-developed countries of Africa and Asia.

Medical libraries are usually controlled by a committee of medical men, and there is often an honorary librarian who exercises general supervision and acts as the administrative link between the committee and the professional librarian. The diversity of libraries is reflected in their financial arrangements and widely varying budgets. Some libraries are entirely supported by the subscriptions of members; others derive their income in whole or in part from the University Grants Committee, from the Government, or from Industry.

Medicine is an art as well as a science, and as its practice vitally affects human beings, it has to concern itself with every aspect of man. The large medical library has to include material relating to anthropology, sociology, psychology, as well as on the basic sciences of anatomy and physiology. As medicine becomes increasingly 'scientific,' the librarian is called upon to provide more and more material in the fields of physics, chemistry and biochemistry. Medicine is one of the oldest disciplines and a very large proportion of its ancient literature (especially case records) is still drawn upon by the clinician and the research worker; this means that the large

library has to maintain a stock of the medical writings of the past. The daily range of enquiries in a medical library may include such diverse topics as the Egyptian medical papyri, folk cures for whooping cough, the nature of the plague of Athens, soil bacteriology, the interpretation of an electroencephalogram, schizophrenic art, electron microscopy and the biological effects of cosmic rays.

Most medical libraries lend books, but the number of issues is often quite small in relation to the total stock—at least compared with that of public libraries. There are not usually separate lending and reference departments and the methods of recording loans are simple. The most striking feature of most medical libraries is the great number of current and bound periodicals, the most important of which are often kept in multiple copies. The turnover in medical literature is extremely rapid; textbooks and monographs are out of date almost as soon as they are published and that is why they occupy a comparatively small place except in libraries devoted to the needs of undergraduates. Periodicals (and reprints) are the medical librarian's great problems.

Service Because of the vast range of medical literature in time and space, reference service assumes special significance in medical libraries. It is difficult for the specialist and the research worker to keep up with the literature without help; for the clinician, and for all living at a distance from libraries, the task is practically impossible. The indexes to medical literature and the various abstracting tools constitute libraries in themselves and to know and use them properly requires years of study and experience. It is, therefore, part of the routine service in most medical libraries to compile lists of references on any subject, together with abstracts and in some cases complete translations. This may involve the listing or selection and dispatch of half a dozen articles or it may mean the compilation of a 'bibliography' of 500 items. The provision of abstracts and translations is made necessary by the great range of medical journals from all parts of the world.

Professional organization Medical librarians, like the profession which they serve, constitute

MEDICAL LIBRARIES

a close-knit body of workers. International contacts are many and a very high degree of co-operation is attained. The Medical Library Association of America founded in 1898 has 1,200 members; it publishes a quarterly *Bulletin* (1898-) and many valuable reports. A committee of the Association was responsible for the *Handbook of medical library practice*, edited by Janet Doe (Chicago, A.L.A. 1943; 2nd ed. in the press). The Medical Section of the Library Association was established in 1947 and has 270 members. It publishes a *Bulletin*, and has compiled a *List of books for hospital libraries*, and a *Report on subject headings*.

Education and training The Medical Section of the Library Association was responsible for the institution of a special examination in Medical Librarianship as one of the parts of the Final Fellowship Examination. Since June, 1950, the examination has consisted of two three-hour papers, the first of which deals with the Literature of Medicine and the second with Medical Library Practice. The syllabus is comprehensive and it reflects the importance which is attached to subject knowledge as distinct from questions of organization and administration. Many of the Section's meetings are didactic in purpose and special courses in medical librarianship have been given by members at the Northwestern Polytechnic. Much more remains to be done, because it is very difficult for the assistant in a small medical library to obtain first-hand knowledge of the literature and of the latest techniques. As in all branches of special librarianship, there is great need for suitable textbooks at all levels of instruction. Formal courses in medical librarianship have been given at a number of American universities since 1937. The Medical Library Association has since 1949 awarded several grades of certificates, but on the basis of university and other training, not by its own examination. There are many striking differences in the two educational systems, most of which stem from the fact that in England formal course of study at a library school has not yet finally displaced the apprenticeship system. The greatest interest in professional training and certification is being displayed by medical librarians in other countries, but the diversity

of background and approach to the problems involved make it impossible to deal with these developments here.

Co-operation The Medical Library Association and the Medical Section of the Library Association have through their respective 'Exchange Services' played an important part in the development of the newer medical libraries throughout the world. The M.L.A. exchange is a very big undertaking, requiring the services of a whole-time manager; in 1954 148,513 single issues of journals and 4,956 bound volumes and books were sent out. The British exchange, which is run entirely by voluntary effort, has since its inception in 1947 distributed over 100,000 items. Five of the largest medical libraries in London, those of the B.M.A., the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, the Royal College of Surgeons, the Medical Research Council and University College (Thane Library of medical sciences) have for some years operated an inter-loan scheme with great success. Similar schemes are in being in other parts of the country, and at the present time many other projects (including the establishment of a central depository for little-used books and journals) are under consideration. The Central Medical Library Bureau, which forms part of the Royal Society of Medicine, supplies photostat and microfilm copies of medical literature on demand, and thanks to the excellent microfilm services of the Armed Forces Medical Library and the Faculté de Médecine and the Institut Pasteur in Paris, it is easy for any medical library to obtain copies of articles which are not available in Britain.

The First International Congress on Medical Librarianship, held in London in July, 1953, was attended by 350 librarians from more than 40 countries. Its *Proceedings*, a volume of 450 pages published in 1954 as Vol. 3 of *Libri* is a storehouse of information on every aspect of medical librarianship. At the conclusion of the Congress an international committee was set up to make arrangements for future meetings and to draw up a constitution for a permanent International Medical Library Association.

Barnard, C. C. 'Medical libraries.' *Librarian*, 1949, 38, 1-9.

Bishop, W. J. 'Some medical bibliophiles and

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- Wilson, G. 'The rôle of the medical librarian.' *Med. Press*, 1952, 227, 456-60.

Cataloguing The Index catalogue of the Surgeon General's Library (now the Armed Forces Medical Library) ranks as one of the supreme bibliographical achievements of all time. Its size and scope are such that it is sometimes forgotten that the work is the catalogue of one library. Hundreds of other printed catalogues of public and private medical libraries exist, but very few have been produced in recent years—for obvious reasons. Among the older library catalogues which still retain their value are those of the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society of London (3 Vols. 1879 and Suppl. 1880-87) and the Royal College of Physicians of London (1912). The catalogue of Lewis's Medical, Scientific and Technical Lending Library (1949 and Suppl. to 1955) is a most useful desk-reference book.

Cataloguing in a medical library presents many problems, some of which arise from the variety of material that has to be dealt with and others in connection with medical terminology and the classification of diseases (Nosology). Some of the special forms of literature encountered are not peculiar to medical libraries, but they may form a high proportion of the stock and have particular importance. The forms which often require special treatment (such as analytical and added entries) include theses and dissertations, Festschriften, German Handbücher, encyclopaedias and loose-leaf 'Systems,' reprints,

'Collected papers,' symposia and the publications of conferences and congresses. Much time has to be spent on these if their contents are to be made fully available. Government publications, hospital reports and serials generally require careful treatment. The ramifications of certain encyclopaedic works, such as the Graefe-Saemisch *Handbuch der gesamten Augenheilkunde*, and of periodicals like *La Semaine des Hôpitaux* constitute a cataloguer's nightmare. The difficulties of medical nomenclature and the ever-changing nosological concepts chiefly affect the question of subject headings. Both the Medical Library Association of America and the Medical Section of the Library Association have issued reports on this subject. Some of the principal points at issue concern specificity of heading, double entry, subjects that overlap, terms that are almost or wholly synonymous, use of sub-headings, treatment of polytopical works, cross references, changes in the meaning of terms at different periods and eponymous terms. As medical libraries have to deal with writings of all periods in many languages the verification of personal names also presents special problems. Russo (1951) gives a useful list of sources for verifying names and Strieby (1940) has provided a guide to foreign medical directories.

The *Subject heading authority list* of the Current List Division of the Armed Forces Medical Library (1954) is widely used, but many librarians devise their own headings. In 1950 the Armed Forces Medical Library entered into a co-operative cataloguing agreement with the Library of Congress, whereby large numbers of printed cards for medical titles will be made generally available on a subscription basis.

Classification According to a survey of 690 libraries made by Graf (1954), the following are the most frequently used classification schemes for medical literature: Dewey (126), Boston Medical Library (89), U.D.C. (76), Library of Congress (71), Cunningham (39), Army Medical Library (27) and Barnard (23); 74 libraries use schemes devised by themselves and 93 have no scheme. There is reason to believe that these statistics are misleading. So far as Britain is concerned, half the libraries included in the survey are not

MEDICAL LIBRARIES

medical and, on the other hand, a large number of medical libraries are not included. The Barnard classification is now used by more than 30 libraries throughout the world and there has recently been an increase in the number of libraries using Bliss.

The first choice which the librarian in search of a classification has to make is that between a universal scheme and a scheme specially devised for medical libraries. The decision will mainly depend upon the size and scope of the collection and whether it forms part of a university or other large general library or whether it is independent. In a highly specialized library the universal schemes—and even the purely medical schemes—may not be sufficiently detailed to be used without modification or expansion. The leading schemes are presented in the following books:

Barnard, C. C. *A classification for medical and veterinary libraries*. 2nd ed., 1955.

U.S. Army Medical Library. *Classification. Medicine. Preclinical sciences, QS-QZ. Medicine and related subjects, W*. 1951.

Boston Medical Library. *Medical classification*. 3rd ed., 1944-46.

Cunningham, E. R. and Steinke, E. G. *Classification for medical literature*. 4th ed., 1955.

Library of Congress Classification. *Class R, Medicine*. 3rd ed., 1952.

Universal decimal classification. Complete English ed. 4th International ed. 61, *Medical sciences*, 1956.

Cunningham, E. R. 'Classification schemes for medical literature.' *Libri*, 1954, 3, 119-22.

Graf, L. 'Statistics showing the use made of classification for medical literature.' *Ibid*, 123-4.

Haykin, D. J. 'The classification of medical literature in the Library of Congress.' *Ibid*, 104-8.

Rogers, F. B. 'Classification in the Armed Forces Medical Library.' *Ibid*, 114-18.

Russo, E. 'Establishing personal author entries in a medical library.' *Bull. Med. Libr. Ass.*, 1951, 39, 40-52.

Strieby, I. M. 'A check-list of foreign directories of the medical and some allied professions.' *Ibid*, 1940, 28, 205-18.

'Symposium on use of main classification schemes.' *Ibid*, 1953, 41, 333-60.

W.J.B.

Medium A standard size of paper measuring 18 × 23 in.

Medium cataloguing That kind of cataloguing in which, as a general policy, entries give only limited information sufficient to identify the books, little bibliographical information and rarely include annotations. The chief omissions from 'full' cataloguing to form 'medium' entries are:

1. The names of the author and writers of introductions, prefaces, etc. (from the title transcript).
2. The place of publication and publisher's name (from the imprint).
3. Detailed pagination statement and specification of the kinds of illustrations (from the collation).

To be distinguished from 'short' cataloguing in which only the briefest possible details consistent with recognition are given.

Mending Minor restoration of the text of a book, not involving the replacement of any material or the separation of book from cover.

Merrill, William Stetson W. S. Merrill compiled a system of book numbers for arranging material in alphabetical or chronological order and a code for classifiers (see also CLASSIFICATION CODE).

Mezzotint Engraving on copper which reproduces tones by means of indentations in the plate made by a rocker, a toothed implement and burnished out to allow of highlights, i.e. the plate is polished so that it does not retain ink in these areas. The process does not use lines, is direct artist work and should not be coloured.

Michel style The style of book decoration practised during the 19th century by Marius Michel and his son in France. The designs are often based on natural forms and the ornament is generally expressed in colour, outlined in blind and very often without the use of gold.

Millboard Thick grey or black board made from waste and sulphite, sold by weight and

often by gauge. Used in better class book-binding.

Miniature A picture painted by hand in an illuminated manuscript; so called from the extensive use of red paint (*minium*). Currently, in books either printed or manuscript, the miniatures may be either printed or hand-painted. Often painted or printed miniatures are set into bindings (*A.L.A. Gloss., Book. Gloss.*).

Miniature book A book of tiny size, issued since the middle of the 18th century, generally 2 in. or less in height. The miniature editions are numerous and include the poets, the Bible, almanacs, etc. Also called 'Lilliput edition' and 'Microscopic edition.'

Minion An obsolete name of a size of type equal to about 7 point.

Minuscule A small letter in medieval handwriting derived from half uncial forms. The origin of modern lower case letters. Minuscule (Fr.) is equivalent to lower case.

Mitchell report See REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS.

Mitred In binding ornamentation indicates a pattern of straight lines that meet but do not cross each other.

Mitred corner A book corner in which by cutting and manipulation of the covering material the turn-ins meet without overlapping.

Mixed notation See CLASSIFICATION.

Mnemonics are memory-aiding devices used in the notation of classification schemes. They may occur by the use of initial letters to indicate certain classes, e.g. in the Library of Congress classification, General Works is A and Encyclopaedias are AE, Newspapers are AN. This type of mnemonic should be used *casually* without distorting the proper sequence of the scheme to get the mnemonic.

Similarly, in the Bibliographic Classification, B is Physics, C is Chemistry (mnemonic) and CB has been used artfully for Physical Chemistry, 'doubly mnemonic and intensively mnemonic' as Bliss says.

But the most important mnemonics are those auxiliary tables which, in various classification schemes, may be applied *systematically* to the whole or part of the tables to denote particular forms or aspects of books. Those denoting one particular aspect are known as *constant*, those which may be used to denote different aspects according to the context are *variable*. However, the combination of symbols in a particular context should not admit of ambiguity, e.g. the Decimal Classification can use only combinations of numbers in its auxiliary tables, but they are arranged skilfully, so that when applied properly, no confusion arises from the use of a final 5 for Periodicals, Asia, Italy or Grammar.

Mnemonics created by the use of tables or schedules are sometimes known as *scheduled mnemonics*.

Seminal or *unscheduled* mnemonics are names sometimes given to the combination of different parts of the notation which are not scheduled to be used together, but which may be made up by the classifier himself to convey a recurrent idea. These can be most useful when new subjects or approaches to subjects are to be classified (see also CLASSIFICATION). Bliss, H. E. *The organization of knowledge in libraries*. 2nd ed., 1939.

Palmer, B. I. and Wells, A. J. *The fundamentals of library classification*. 1951. Chapter VIII.

Mobile libraries Mobile libraries are collections of books arranged in vehicles and so staffed as to provide a library service capable of being directed to communities which are often, though not exclusively, rural. They are used by some municipal and many county library systems. In county library practice a distinction is drawn between mobile branch libraries and travelling libraries. The mobile branch library is a medium-to-large vehicle with a shelf stock of upwards of 2,000 books used over reasonably good roads to serve villages and hamlets. The travelling library is a smaller vehicle with a limited stock used in the service of scattered communities and providing in some cases, a house-to-house service in remote and upland areas.

Depending on the size of chassis used, the loan collection may vary from 700 to over

MOBILE LIBRARIES

3,000 books on the open shelves and additional stock may be carried in specially made lockers and exterior boots. The chassis used may range from 25 cwt. to 6 tons. Both trailer type and caravan mobile libraries have been used in addition to rigid vehicles. In many cases a passenger bus chassis is employed and, because of its economy in running, the 3 ton vehicle is a popular choice. Additional length may be given to the wheel base by extending the chassis and also by conversion to full forward-control, which adds a further 21 in. to the body length. Special bodies are required, although standard box vans and omnibus bodies have been adapted by some authorities. In parts of the United States and in some other hot countries, many mobile libraries have hinged sides. These are raised to display the books which face outwards. In the United Kingdom, however, the standard practice is to provide a body into which the reader can enter. The shelves, therefore, face inwards and generally run round three sides of the vehicle, the fourth is usually reserved for the issue desk assembly. In some mobile libraries projecting stacks and 'alcoves' are to be found. The shelves are generally tilted backwards, some 1 in. to 1½ in. from front to back. This helps to keep the stock in position while the vehicle is in motion. Adjustable book ends have also been used to solve this problem. The books facing forward in the rear of the vehicle pose a special problem since heavy braking will dislodge them even from tilted shelves. Hinged slats and sliding grilles are used to prevent this. Issue desks normally cross or partly cross the front of the vehicle. Adjustable seats allow the librarian to face inwards to attend to readers at 'halts' and to face forwards while the vehicle is in motion. Natural light is provided by roof lights which may be flush or of the projecting 'lantern' variety. In either case hinges may be provided to some of the lights to assist ventilation. Artificial lighting is normally electrical, using either filament-type bulbs or fluorescent tubes. For cold weather running a heater such as the bus-type Clayton heater is provided. At long halts in urban or semi-urban areas mains power is sometimes used for lighting and heating.

Operational details vary widely from authority to authority. Most issue records

resemble those in use in normal branch libraries. Much use is made in counties, however, of the 'family issue' system whereby the bookcards of the books borrowed are clipped or banded to a 5 x 3 in. or larger card bearing the family name and address. Visits are made in rural areas at weekly, fortnightly, three-weekly or monthly intervals. Because of this the allowance of books issued per reader is fairly lavish—in some cases no limit is placed on the number borrowed. In urban areas visits are made more frequently. Annual issues range from 25,000 to 125,000 per vehicle and non-fiction issues of as high as 40 per cent have been noted. Although the stock of the average mobile library is about 2,000 it is capable of circulating as many as 10,000 books in its area of operation. The duration of the mobile library visit will depend on the size of the community served and will vary from 5 or 10 minutes to 2 hours or more. In counties the mobile library will operate from the county library H.Q., from a regional centre or from a town or village central to the area served.

The mobile library has played a notable part in the development of the county library system. Rural communities had been largely served by village library centres with limited book collections and, usually, an untrained volunteer librarian. The mobile library provided the means whereby a considerably larger stock and a trained librarian could be taken to even the smallest and most remote community. Its suitability for urban service is limited. Within its limits it is effective, but the infrequent visits, the restricted floor area and the lack of reference material makes it inferior to branch library provision, although its use as an interim measure pending the opening of a branch library is obvious.

J.B.F.

Modern A general description of type faces which have vertical balanced stress and fine hair serifs. Particularly associated with Bodoni who first developed these forms in Parma about 1780.

Modular planning Modular planning means planning in standardized units or 'modules.' Nowadays parts of buildings can be made in the factory, or 'pre-fabricated,' and are then

assembled on the site. In library buildings the advantage of this system, apart from saving of cost, is chiefly that a library building can be designed with a minimum of permanent structure, and divided up inside into standard-size units which can be made by means of suitable partitions and furniture into reading room space, bookstack space or administrative rooms. The system in other words allows the architect to make a flexible 'open' plan in which the use of each area is interchangeable. Temporary partitions can be easily moved, and adjustments made for the gradual expansion of the library, and for changes in the relative size and capacity of reading rooms or staff rooms or stacks without altering the permanent structure.

The module or unit is usually about 8 or 9 ft, and is used for both horizontal and vertical measurements. The single unit is suitable for the height of one bookstack but double this is used for the height of a reading room. (See article on ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING: University libraries—Iowa, Princeton, Lamont.) For a recent branch of Sheffield Public Libraries, however, a 13 ft 6 in. module has been used. (*Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 184-6.)

The idea of the modular library owes much to an article by Angus Snead Macdonald called 'The library of the future.' (*Libr. J.*, 1933, Dec. 1 and 15.)

A.T.

Monograph A single volume dealing systematically and in detail with one single subject.

Monotype A machine invented by Tolbert Lanston for composing lines of movable type. The processes of composition and casting are separated into two machines, the keyboard, similar to a typewriter, which, when operated, perforates a paper ribbon according to a code with holes for each letter, and also indications for spaces; and the casting machine, to which the completed ribbon is transferred, and from which type is cast at the rate of about 150 characters a minute.

The Monotype Corporation has placed on the market numerous types that had fallen into disuse, and has made available many historical founts and ornaments. An active

programme of research is continually in progress particularly with regard to photo-composition.

Mordant Acid or other corrosive agent used in etching.

Morison, Stanley (1889-) English typographer and historian of the graphic arts. At various times editor of *The Fleuron*, typographic adviser to Cambridge University Press, to the Monotype Company and to *The Times*, for whose use he designed the new Times Roman and related types. Author of a long and authoritative list of books and articles on printing types, calligraphy, newspapers, alphabets, writing-books, etc. Received the Gold Medal of the American Institute of Graphic Arts in 1946 and the Gold Medal of the Bibliographical Society of London in 1948 and was awarded an honorary degree from Cambridge University in 1950.

Morocco Leather manufactured from the skin of goats. It is classed as one of the most durable leathers for bookbinding, being very firm, yet flexible. It is said to have been first made by the Moors.

The real history of binding begins with the introduction of morocco and gold tooling at the end of the 15th century in Venice and Florence. The goatskins came from the Levant, where they had long been in use. The earliest European bindings in morocco with gilt decoration occur upon books printed by Aldus and are supposed to have been made for him or under his supervision. The Venetian covers of his time are usually called Aldine bindings.

Morris, William (1834-96). English poet, artist, author and craftsman. Founder of the Kelmscott Press. About 1880, Morris and a few friends undertook a revival of printing and bookmaking, which had its inspiration in a thorough knowledge of the art of the 15th century. No similar movement in modern times has had such a powerful and far-reaching effect. Though Morris has been criticized for the adoption of gothic types, and for the over-elaboration of his books, no one has ever questioned the perfection of his printing or the sincerity of his purpose. Many fine presses

MORTISE

were established as a result of his pioneering. The original material of the Kelmscott Press is now in the British Museum.

Mortise A space cut out of a printing plate in order to insert type or another plate.

Mosaic 'map' A composite picture made up of two or more overlapping aerial photographs which, being in perspective or conic projection, represent on a true scale only those portions of the earth which are vertically below the centre of the camera (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Mould A shallow tray used to make sheets of paper, constructed of seasoned wood, with a base made of a series of fine wires laid about 28-32 to the inch across stouter wires called chain lines. These two sets of wires are supported by stouter V-shaped ribs. The wires may also be woven brass, yielding 'wove' paper in place of 'laid.' An important addition to the mould is the Deckle, a narrow rim placed on the mould to prevent the pulp from overflowing.

Mould-made paper An imitation hand-made paper, made from rag furnish on a mould machine.

Mounted plate An illustration secured to a page of a book.

Movable type A term applied to type to distinguish the letters thus printed from wood-block printing (xylography).

Mull See CRASH.

Mullins, John Davies (1832-1900). First Librarian of Birmingham from 1865-98, gave to the Birmingham conference of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science in 1868 a paper on *Free libraries and newsrooms: their formation and management* which, when printed, became the first practical handbook of public library management, and reached a third edition in 1879.

G.J.

Multi-tier stack See SHELVING.

Museums Museums may be (a) provided and maintained under the Public Libraries Acts (see PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW) or, (b) if established before the passing of the Public

Libraries Act, 1919, maintained under the Museums and Gymnasiums Act, 1891. The Act of 1919 provided that as from the date of commencement of that Act, so much of Section 4 of the Museums and Gymnasiums Act as authorizes the provision of museums in England and Wales shall cease to have effect, without prejudice, however, to the power of maintaining under the Act any museum already established. The 1919 Act goes on to provide that, where the district for which a museum has been provided under the Act of 1891 is, or is part of, or at any time becomes, or becomes part of, a library district, the museum shall be transferred to the library authority of the district and be maintained by that authority as though it had been provided under the Public Libraries Acts. The power to provide gymnasiums under the 1891 Act has also been repealed and the Act is now of very limited application. It applies only to the maintenance of a museum in a district which is not a library district. Its provisions include those relating to buildings, admission, regulations and byelaws, temporary closing for repairs, expenses and borrowing and power to sell a museum if, after seven years or upwards, it 'is unnecessary or too expensive.'

Sunday opening of museums is permitted under the Sunday Entertainments Act, 1932.

It is not proposed to set down here the law relating to the provision and maintenance of museums under the Public Libraries Acts and reference should be made to the title PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW and other appropriate titles.

The Minister of Education may make grants in aid of the purchase, for addition to the collections exhibited in local museums and art galleries in England and Wales, of works of art (including reproductions) other than paintings in oils, and objects illustrative of the application of experimental and mechanical sciences to industry or art, or illustrative of zoology, botany, geology and mineralogy, or illustrating local history. Grants will not exceed half the purchase money and applications therefore must normally be made before purchase. (Regulations for Grants to Local Museums and Art Galleries, 1934 (S.R.O. 1934, No. 364).)

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A. R. H.

Music libraries Music collections have existed in this country from pre-Reformation times, but the development of music libraries began to take definite shape only with the growth of the copyright deposit system. Music librarians as a recognizable professional group are a quite recent phenomenon, and the full organization of the material resources of Great Britain has waited upon them. W. Barclay Squire provided a corner-stone of music librarianship with his *Catalogue of the printed music (1487-1800) in the British Museum* (2 Vols., 1912) and his work has been kept current by supplements and annual accessions lists. The best account of the state of the libraries and collections in this country since the war is given under 'libraries and collections' in Volume 5 of the 5th ed. of 'Grove.' This is both a conspectus of resources and a 'Who's Who' of present librarians.

The largest libraries deal separately with printed and manuscript music (in the British Museum the classes are separately administered and have their own independent catalogues). The printed catalogues of these collections are in the main long out-of-print. They run to a couple of dozen, ranging from those of the British Museum (including the monumental 4-volume Paul Hirsch catalogue, 1928-47), to that of the Liverpool Public Libraries (1954), and the various handlists of public libraries such as Newcastle upon Tyne and Derbyshire County.

Techniques Technical ways and means develop gradually with the number and size of music collections. Fundamental matters of classification, cataloguing, shelving, etc., were codified in Vol. 1 of McColvin and Reeves' *Music libraries* (1937), and have not basically altered. Various fresh attempts at music classification, however, have been made, viz. the later editions of Dewey and the Bliss and Hirsch schemes, while the Library Association produced (1944-45) some detailed data which

seems likely to remain unpublished. A basic cataloguing code is, at the moment of writing, awaited from a special committee set up in 1951 by the International Association of Music Libraries. The U.K. Branch of this body is the only institution to give systematic attention to collating data regarding the special problems of cataloguing musical MSS.

Common to other fields of library work, but of particular interest to music libraries, is the development of photo-copying techniques of all kinds. Music publishing itself reflects these developments, and has added numerous 'facsimile' reproduction processes (azoflex, dyeline, etc.) to the basic ones of engraving and printing. Music libraries concerned to any extent with providing composite materials (orchestral parts, chorus scores, etc.) are finding the possession of one or other of the photo-copying machines on the market a distinct asset. Studio photography for most kinds of music reproduction is now yielding to the various dye processes.

Shelving and storage methods reflect, of necessity, the variety of format of music scores. Various kinds of shelving for bound scores have long been in use. Librarians, in public libraries at least, have often overlooked the obvious advantages of flat-filing for such scores. They have also tended to fight shy of sheet-music as such, taking refuge in binding of composite volumes or in ignoring the problem altogether. The varieties of flat and vertical filing systems now available have recently begun to change this view. Thin sheet-music can be a nuisance, but if tackled sensibly can give great value for relatively low cost. Proper maintenance, (sewing into covers, strengthening of joints and spines, etc.) is important, but should be carried out with an eye to the musical importance of the works treated.

Scope of services There are at least four types of service, and some libraries attempt all of these:

(a) *Research* The music sections of the copyright libraries of certain university and college libraries concentrate mainly on source-materials for reference. Such collections may also, of course, be found in large public and private reference libraries. The National Central Library has never stocked

music but handles requests which have not been met by the various regional union catalogues, and does good work in securing microfilms, etc., from foreign libraries. It is an unfortunate fact, however, that much of the source-material for musical research, both scores and literature, escapes the official national inter-loans machinery because so much of it is only to be found in the libraries of the music faculties of the universities, and these rarely agree to act as outliers of the N.C.L., though they sometimes give private help to outsiders.

Two current projects in this field deserve special mention: (i) the union catalogue of pre-1800 printed music in British libraries, and (ii) the *International repertory of music sources*, planned jointly by the International Association of Music Libraries and the International Musicological Society as a revised and much-expanded version of Eitner's *Quellen-Lexikon* (1899-1904). This is to appear sectionally, commencing in 1957 with a volume devoted to early printed anthologies. The latter project, in which most European countries and the United States are participating, includes MSS. The complete inventoring of musical MSS, in all British libraries still awaits attention, though such printed catalogues as those of the British Museum, Christ Church, Oxford and the Fitzwilliam and Peterhouse collections at Cambridge show that the field is not entirely untitled.

An American project for establishing an international archive of musical microfilms, in extension of the Hoboken Archiv of Vienna, is in its early stages.

(b) *Teaching* The principal music schools (the Royal Academy of Music, the Royal College of Music, Trinity College of Music, Guildhall School of Music, and their provincial equivalents) naturally concentrate on providing teaching materials, though some, such as the first two, have handsome research collections as well. This applies increasingly to the growing university music schools in the provinces, and not least to those of the 'red-brick' universities.

(c) *Performance* A small but growing number of public libraries, particularly in the North of England, are concerning them-

selves with providing loan collections in bulk for amateur orchestras and choirs. At least one (the Henry Watson Library, Manchester) offers nation-wide service of this kind on subscription terms. The most comprehensive collections of all are held by the B.B.C., but the use of these for non-broadcasts has to be very carefully circumscribed. An important recent development in this field of public service is the founding of the Central Music Library (based on the Edwin Evans collection, and later benefactions), now working within the framework of the Westminster Public Libraries system. Its first printed sectional catalogue (Opera scores) appeared in 1955. The C.M.L.'s comprehensive collections of music and musical literature forms a pivotal point for public library service in London and the Home Counties, acting as a filter for inter-library loans and requests, in the meeting of which it shows steadily increasing success.

The National Federation of Music Societies has issued useful catalogues of *Choral works* (2nd ed., 1953) and *Chamber music* (1955). For broadcasting purposes the various radio-members of the International Association of Music Libraries are combining to establish their own inventory of rare performing materials.

Besides the hire-libraries of the various music-publishers, several important commercial libraries offer a valuable public service, notably Goodwin and Tabb (a general orchestral hire-library), Chester's Chamber Music Lending Library and the Library of the National Operatic and Dramatic Association.

(d) *Gramophone libraries* The corporate provision of gramophone records is a post-war development which has radically altered the aspect of municipal music-provision. In emulation of Oxford University's gramophone record collection, some 65 public libraries (mainly in London and the Home Counties) now provide records, either for societies or for individuals. Examples of published catalogues are those of Westminster, Lambeth and Kensington. In all cases the public response has been phenomenal. The Gramophone Section of the

International Association of Music Libraries' U.K. Branch is collating data of existing services, and investigating such questions as cataloguing and classification, standards of provision, storage, conditions of circulation, etc.

In general, music library provision reflects the state of general library service in this country. At its best, it is equal to anything in the United States, and superior to that of most other countries. It is, however, undeniably uneven. The number of libraries which support a separate music section of any consequence is small; those employing a separate music librarian is much smaller still. Training for music librarianship, after nearly ten years of separate provision in the Library Association's Final syllabus (Part 3f: Literature and Librarianship of Music), is still embryonic, and only one of the recognized schools of librarianship (North-Western Polytechnic, London) attempts any systematic oral teaching for it. In the event such few posts as are advertised often go to graduates in music for whom the music-profession itself offers all too few and too uncertain prospects.

There is no doubt whatsoever that the standards of musical appreciation have risen quite remarkably since the war. Radio and the recent flood of long-playing records, together

with the growth of musicology in the service of musical performance (of which the Royal Musical Association's *Musica Britannica* series is a shining example) form an opportunity and a challenge to the music libraries of this country. The best efforts of music librarians, supported by the co-ordinating influence of the U.K. Branch of the International Association of Music Libraries, are now being harnessed to meet this challenge, for the intelligent pursuit of music depends to an unusual degree on library facilities.

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J.H.D.

Mutton quad An em quadrat.

N

Name authority file A file, usually on cards, listing the forms of name of both personal and corporate authors, editors, etc., authorized for use as headings in a catalogue, together with an indication of the references to be made from variant forms or other parts of each name.

Name catalogue An alphabetical catalogue of entries under the names of persons and places as author headings and as subject headings. The name catalogue is compiled in the same manner as an author and title catalogue, with the addition of added entries under the names of persons and corporate bodies when these are treated as the subject of books.

Name reference A reference from an alternative form of a name to the form selected for use as a heading in the catalogue, e.g.

1. Avebury, John Lubbock, 1st baron
See
Lubbock, John, 1st baron Avebury.
2. Dunton, Theodore Watts-
See
Watts-Dunton, Theodore.
3. Twain, Mark, pseud.
See
Clemens, Samuel Langhorne.

Narrow Width less than three-fifths of height, as narrow octavo.

National and University Libraries, standing conference See STANDING CONFERENCE OF NATIONAL AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.

National bibliography A bibliography of books produced in the language of one country and of books produced in the country, whatever their language (*Libr. Gloss.*).

National Book League The National Book League grew out of the National Book Council, which was founded after a number of readers, authors, booksellers, librarians and publishers decided to form a society the aim of which was the advancement of literature by

the co-operation of all those concerned with books. They envisaged a central body which would become the clearing-house and the authoritative channel through which book information could be fed to the public, and in 1924 the National Book Council was born. From its tentative beginnings it has widened its scope and in 1944 its name was changed to that of National Book League; soon after this date its headquarters was established at 7 Albemarle Street, London, W.1.

The National Book League is a non-commercial body and was, until recently, the only organization of its kind in the world. To-day, with a rapidly increasing membership and nation-wide interest and support, the League can be rightly said to play a unique and necessary part in the book activities of the country.

The League's object is to provide certain services and facilities designed to foster and maintain an interest in books generally. Through these various activities it seeks to stimulate the enjoyment of existing readers and create an interest in books among the young and among those who have hitherto neglected their reading. The League attaches particular importance to the necessity of guiding, and advising on, the reading habits of children and is always ready to help any school or institution with its reading problems. In this connection, the League has enlisted the support and co-operation of many Local Education Authorities, who appreciate the valuable contribution which the League is making to the nation's education. A Manual on *School libraries* is published in collaboration with the School Library Association; *Four to fourteen* lists and describes literature for children of all ages.

The League's library contains a standard collection of books about books, literary biographies, bibliographies and allied subjects. The Book Information Bureau answers queries about books received from members all over the world. Any question, from the

date of a book's publication to the source of a quotation, is speedily dealt with either by letter or telephone. Exhibitions of books, covering a wide variety of subjects and enhanced by authoritative catalogues, are staged periodically at the League's headquarters, and touring exhibitions, many of them of special interest to children, travel to towns and villages throughout the country. The League also arranges lectures at its headquarters and has included among its speakers on these occasions many of the prominent literary figures of the day. Articles of literary interest by well-known book-men are published in the League's journal, *Books*, which is issued free to members and is published eight times a year. Experts on many subjects compile booklists and Reader's Guides on subjects as widely different as *Fishing*, *Theatre* and *The elements of Christianity*; these are available to members and non-members alike.

An annual lecture by an outstanding speaker is regularly published in booklet form. In 1953 T. S. Eliot spoke on *The three voices of poetry*; in 1954 Sir William Haley, the League's President, described his own reading habits in *A smallholding on Parnassus*.

J.E.M.

National Central Library Founded in 1916 by Dr. Albert Mansbridge as the Central Library for Students to provide books for adult class students, the National Central Library soon largely extended its original scope. It has developed, largely as the result of the recommendations of the Public Libraries Committee presented to the Board of Education in 1927, as the recognized central national lending library of books for study, the clearing-house for the inter-lending of such books between libraries of all types at home and abroad, and a centre for other co-operative library projects. Housed originally in small quarters in Tavistock Square and subsequently in Galen Place, very conveniently near the great bibliographical resources of the British Museum, it was in 1933 presented by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, for many years its most generous and regular supporter, with its present building at Malet Place. This building and a large part of the

Library's collections were destroyed by enemy action in 1941 and reconstruction was completed in 1952, again with generous help from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.

The Library works in conjunction with the regional library systems, each covering a series of adjacent counties, which have grown up since 1931. It serves also the needs of all academic libraries, having taken over in 1931 the activities of the Enquiry Office established in 1925 at Birmingham University for arranging loans between university libraries; as well as the requirements of a large number of special libraries. These last, which lend their specialized books and periodicals on the N.C.L.'s request when the ordinary resources fail, now number 249. The Library is also the British centre for a large and growing volume of international lending, for which applications are normally channelled through national libraries. Issues of books and periodicals of all kinds from or through the Library in 1954-55 reached 100,000 while the whole inter-lending system of the country issued over 290,000 volumes. All requests for books and periodicals require to be made through the applicant's own library, public, academic or special.

Apart from the proceeds of a small endowment fund which the Trustees much desire to increase, the Library is now supported by contributions from participating libraries of all types and grants from educational trusts, but its main source of income is now an annual grant-in-aid from Her Majesty's Treasury, which in 1955-56 amounted to £38,100.

The main central machinery for inter-library lending consists of two great Union Catalogues—the National Union Catalogue, covering in the main books from the lending departments of public and county libraries, and composed of duplicate entries from the union catalogues of most of the regional library systems, and an 'Outlier' Union Catalogue covering at present the partial or complete holdings of special libraries, the accessions of many university and college libraries and entries for additional holdings from all sources brought to light in the day-to-day enquiries carried out by the Library. There are special catalogues for Russian

NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY

material and for German war-time material in British libraries which are able to lend.

An Adult Class Department, almost the whole of whose collection was destroyed in 1941, supplements the resources of public and extra-mural libraries by the loan of books to part-time classes which are non-vocational and which are not studying for examinations. It has its own separate stock of about 38,000 volumes of standard, out-of-print or specialized works, selected according to expressed needs.

An Accessions Department deals with the Library's own stock of about 150,000 volumes, largely out-of-print, specialized or more expensive works which the ordinary library would not itself be justified in purchasing. Numerically the greatest part of the staff, the Inter-lending Department, deals with the locating and arranging for the loan of books and periodicals available through the whole national network and with work on the great Union Catalogues and their arrears which, during and since the war, have assumed very large proportions, both at regional and national level. As regional catalogues are completed and schemes for comprehensive regional coverage become more numerous and more fully developed, it may be expected that the demands on the N.C.L. may be much more concerned with more specialized, more expensive, rarer and foreign material than at present.

The British National Book Centre, records and redistributes redundant material in British libraries.

The N.C.L. maintains for its work a large and valuable collection of the main works of bibliographical reference, including a complete author catalogue of the Library of Congress.

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R.H.H.

Natural classification A system in which an inherent characteristic, necessary to its being is used, as distinguished from an artificial classification. It is classification by fundamental structure or function, by *homology* (see also ARTIFICIAL CLASSIFICATION).

Negative A term used to describe a photographic image on film or paper, in which the tones of the original are reversed. In documentary reproduction a negative photocopy of an ordinary page of printed matter may be a negative mirror-image copy, in which the letters appear white on a black background, or as in the case of a photostat copy, a right-reading print with the colours reversed.

Newark charging system The method of recording book loans which is most widely used in America. Each borrower has a ticket or card with spaces for recording loans. Each book is represented by a book card which is normally kept in the book. When a loan is made, the date is stamped three times—on the reader's card, on the book card and on the date label. The borrower's ticket number is copied on to the book card and, in the full form of the system, the book number is entered on the reader's ticket. Only the book card is filed as a time record, the borrower retaining his ticket after the entries have been made. At the return counter the date of return is stamped on the reader's ticket and, when convenient, the book card is removed from file and replaced in the book.

Simplified versions of the method are also used, including self-charging systems, in which the borrower does the writing, and mechanized versions such as the Dickman system and the Gaylord Electric Automatic charging system.

Flexner, J. M. *Circulation work in public libraries*. Chicago, A.L.A., 1927. pp. 78-94.
Harrod, L. M. *Lending library methods*. Grafton, 1933. pp. 112-17.

News book 1. A pamphlet of the 16th and 17th centuries relating current events (see also RELATION and CORANTO). 2. After 1640 in England, a journal usually issued weekly,

consisting at first of one sheet in quarto, later of two sheets, variously entitled *Diurnall*, *Mercurius*, *Intelligence* (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Newsletter 1. A 16th and 17th century manuscript report of the day, written for special subscribers and issued irregularly or weekly. 2. A similar 17th century report for special subscribers, sometimes set in scriptorial type and imitating the appearance of the earlier manuscript letter (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Newspaper libraries A newspaper library is a collection of reference material and, sometimes, of illustrations planned to serve the daily needs of a newspaper. It is expected to provide a quick reference service on any of the diverse topics forming the news of the day. It must be as near self-sufficient as is economic because it is regularly in use when other libraries are closed and experts are not available. Newspaper libraries have three fundamental characteristics: emphasis on very recent information, brevity and concision in its presentation and rapidity of service. Although these essentials naturally have considerable effect on methods and arrangement, within that framework the library observes normal practice. Only its tempo and some of its tools are different.

It serves chiefly the editorial staff: leader writers, reporters, sub-editors and specialists, each of whom has his individual approach to a subject. If, as is frequently the case, both morning and evening papers are served, the department may be called upon at almost any time of day or night. It does not follow, however, that the library staff is present during the whole of this time. Some smaller libraries would find this uneconomic and therefore allow enquirers to help themselves during slack times; a factor which discourages any tendency towards over-elaboration.

It is a pity that at the present time only a minority of newspapers employ trained librarians. Their numbers are growing, however, and the influence of professionalism is making itself felt, in moves towards standardization and in a closer study of this branch of librarianship. The size of staff varies from 20 or more in the libraries of some national newspapers to many one-man organizations in the provinces.

The library stock comprises books, bound newspaper files, pamphlets, government publications and press cuttings, the last being by far the most important item. In addition, many libraries also store photographs, maps, half-tone blocks, photographic negatives and microfilms. Some maintain an index to their own newspaper. Bookstocks vary considerably in range and size. Eight thousand volumes is a large newspaper library, a few hundreds is normal. The stock of most consists of quick reference books supplemented by statistical compilations and works of biographical reference. Several duplicate copies of books in daily use act as desk books. Pamphlets and government publications are variously dealt with, sometimes being filed with the cuttings and sometimes forming a separate section, with the more important of them bound and treated as books. Many books and pamphlets reach the library in the form of review copies which present their special difficulties.

Partly because of the demand for information too recent to appear in books and also because of the primary need to preserve the contents of the home newspaper, press cuttings are the most heavily used class of material in the library. Towards their organization the larger part of the routine is devoted. Most libraries cut their own newspaper extensively and take exclusive and fuller stories from others. National newspapers cut almost everything, from political and foreign news to the apparently unimportant 'oddities' of life. The proportions reflect the newspaper's contents. All pay much attention to contemporary biography, while the recording and indexing of crime is a preoccupation of some of the libraries of the 'popular' press. Sport and speeches (arranged by speakers' names) are important sections. Provincial newspapers naturally emphasize local events and personalities, and commonly leave most of the foreign news to the news agencies.

Press cuttings are usually stored in folders or envelopes in vertical filing cabinets. Quarto size is general, although some prefer shallower index drawers or pamphlet boxes. An important recent development is the use of lateral suspended files on an open framework of rails. Whether or not to mount cuttings is a matter for local decision, bearing

NEWSPAPER LIBRARIES

in mind size, usage and quality of newsprint. Different coloured mountings are sometimes used to indicate main classes or year of publication.

Methods of selecting and filing cuttings are chiefly designed to ensure that nothing potentially useful is missed and to provide for consistency in classifying. The paper is usually 'marked up,' with subject headings allotted, by a senior member of the staff who passes it to a junior for cutting, or the whole operation may be carried out by the same person. Where several copies of the same item are required a different keyword or heading is indicated on each (usually by underlining).

In view of the lack of contact between newspaper libraries it is significant that nearly all employ the same general arrangement for cuttings—alphabetical by subject. Foreign news is subdivided under country of origin and most of the remaining headings are British in emphasis. The extent of subdivision and choice of main heading depend on local usage. The plan of subdivision is empirical and follows the development of the subject from the point of view of the newspaper. Existing headings are frequently changed in conformation with current phraseology and new ones interpolated as they arise.

Biography forms a separate sequence in all but the smallest libraries but practice varies over the separation from it of those no longer living (the 'morgue'). The storage (and sometimes the preparation) of advance obituaries of the well-known living is usually the library's responsibility. Sport and sporting biography are also sometimes separately dealt with.

Newsprint being cheap, as many duplicate cuttings as necessary may be filed at different aspects of a story. Where this is undesirable, slip references on coloured paper are placed in the files at alternative or associated headings. It is desirable that the subject headings in use should be controlled by an index—either of cards, in manuscript or on flexible display stands, although many libraries manage without one. The alternative is to list *see also* references on the files themselves and to use dummy folders for *see* references. Continuous and systematic discarding is an essential part of library routine. The removal and separate

storage of material earlier than a defined period plays an important part in the process.

Only two British newspapers publish an index—*The Times* and the *Glasgow Herald*. Privately, however, a large number attempt a limited coverage in this form. The index is usually typed on cards with a similar subject arrangement to that of the cuttings. The processes of indexing and cutting the paper, where both are in use, usually supplement each other to some extent. Some newspapers index their own columns exhaustively and cut from others; others index distinct features such as obituaries and letters, cutting all else. It is unfortunate that printing costs have so far prevented the publication of these indexes, which offer unique reference tools to the research worker.

The primary purpose of the photographic library is to supply stock pictures of people, places and events to illustrate news stories and feature articles. Pictorial emphasis is upon contemporary portraits and topography. In addition, a selection of scenes with subject interest, like industry, traffic, aviation, children and so forth is represented. Much importance is attached to adequate captions and accurate or approximate dates. Classification follows the arrangement of the cuttings but headings tend to be wider in scope since the demand is less often for a specific picture than for a selection on a topic. Where half-tone blocks or photographic negatives are part of the library these are usually preserved in specially-designed containers, with proofs, on a numerical basis of arrangement guided by an index.

Most newspapers also find themselves supplying a number of auxiliary services designed to assist the provision of news and information. These include such items as an index to experts and the addresses and telephone numbers of some of the less easily located societies, lists of approaching events (in chronological order) and certain special groupings of news items to assist a specific purpose (e.g. domestic accidents involving boiling water).

The future may hold some interesting developments. Microfilming of bound files is becoming general and at least one newspaper is available on microcards. In America the

microfilming of the cuttings themselves is being carried out. Wire photo-apparatus is reducing the need for each newspaper to hold large collections of pictures. The Telex system and the teleprinter enable the library to be exploited more fully by its overseas and country correspondents.

Great Britain has no association of newspaper librarians but in America the Newspaper Division of the Special Libraries Association has flourished since 1923. This body is at present engaged in building up a library of newspaper librarianship.

The only factual account of British newspaper libraries is Lewis, J. *Newspaper libraries*. 1952. (Library Association pamphlet No. 11). There are two American books on the subject: Desmond, R. W. *Newspaper reference methods*. 1933. (University of Minnesota Press) has a very full bibliography of periodical articles up to the date of publication; the other, Friedman, H. A. *Newspaper indexing*. 1942. (Marquette University Press), is the only indexing manual we have. This, too, has a good bibliography. Articles have appeared in the *Library review* and in *Special libraries* (which devoted a section to newspaper libraries in Dec., 1931, 22, No. 10). The 1937 Aslib conference held a session on newspaper libraries which was reported in *Aslib proceedings* of that year.

G.W.

Newspaper stack A stack with specially planned shelving for the storage of bound volumes of newspapers (see also PERIODICAL STACK).

Newsprint The unsized, absorbent paper used in newspaper printing, made largely from wood pulp, usually known as mechanical wood.

Nicholson, Edward Williams Byron (1849-1912). Librarian of the London Institution from 1873-82—during which time he was mainly responsible for convening the International Conference of Librarians at the Institution in 1877—and Bodley's Librarian from 1882-1912, in his energetic re-organization of the Bodleian caused much controversy. He introduced an unprecedented degree of minute shelf classification, formu-

lated new cataloguing rules and a plan for a subject catalogue, employed better-educated boys as non-professional assistants—to be instructed personally after working hours by the librarian—and compiled the famous and meticulous *Staff Kalendar* (1902). Many of his other projects were to be of seminal importance in the organization of research libraries, open access reference collections and periodicals reading rooms in particular. Nicholson is perhaps the outstanding instance of a librarian schooled in a library public in character, who transplanted many of his ideals to a great academic library. His is also an extreme personal case of a librarian identifying himself with his organization completely and, in the end, fatally. (D.N.B.; Craster, *History of the Bodleian library, 1845-1945*, 1952.)

G.J.

Nick A groove cut in the shank of each sort which guides the compositor in setting type the correct way without having to inspect the letters.

Nickel-faced stereo A facing of nickel given to strengthen a stereotype plate and to increase the number of impressions which may be taken.

Niger morocco A morocco made from Sudanese goatskin; originally native-tanned on the banks of the river Niger. Sometimes shorted to 'Niger.'

Nihil obstat Literally 'nothing hinders,' a statement of sanction for publication given by a Catholic book censor, found usually on verso of title-page or following leaf (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Ninety-one rules The name given to the catalogue code prepared, at the instigation and with the guidance of Sir Anthony Panizzi, by a committee consisting of Thomas Watts, J. H. Parry, J. Winter Jones and Edward Edwards. The code is so-called because of the 91 rules it contained, prescribing the methods of entry, choice of headings, added entries and references to be used in compiling the British Museum catalogue of printed books. Its importance lies in the fact that it was the first major code providing detailed rules

NIPPING MACHINE

for the consistent entry of books, logically according to their authorship circumstances, and setting the catalogue pattern of main entries, added entries and references now firmly established in cataloguing practice.

The code received the approval of the British Museum Trustees in 1839, being published in 1841, and was used for compiling the *General catalogue of printed books*, 1881-1900 and the subsequent supplements. The latest revision (1936) of the British Museum code contains, in all, only 41 rules, yet nearly all of the 91 decisions remain valid. It is a tribute to the work of the committee, and especially Panizzi, that all subsequent codes of rules for author entry have been based largely on this code. During the present century much criticism has been voiced against certain of the class entry rulings embodied (such as the entry of periodicals under Periodical Publications, orders of divine service under Liturgies, etc.) and against the treatment of anonymous works. Certain of the original rules have therefore been discarded in British Museum practice.

Nipping machine A machine used in binderies for pressing folded sections to render them more compact for binding.

Nom de plume A pen name; a writer's assumed name; a pseudonym.

Nonesuch Press A private press founded in London in 1923 by Francis Meynell, Vera Meynell and David Garnett as publishers of fine editions for collectors who were also readers. The only private press which has a commercial basis, it has exerted a great in-

fluence in raising the standard of trade books. The printing is usually done by the Chiswick Press.

Nonpareil An obsolete name for a type size about 6 point. Also used for a 6 point lead.

Not A finish given to high-quality rag papers. Rough is no finish; Not is less rough but 'not-smooth.' Hot pressed (H.P.) means plate glazed finish.

Notation See CLASSIFICATION.

Note 1. A statement explaining the text of a book or adding material to it, printed on the same page as the text, or at the end of book or chapter. 2. A concise statement after imprint and collation in a catalogue or bibliography entry, giving added information, such as name of series, bibliographical information or contents. In cataloguing the term is sometimes limited to an item on a catalogue card below the collation and the main body of the card (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

'Nothing before something' filing See WORD BY WORD FILING.

Numbered column A page set in columns each having a number at the head for reference.

Numbered copy A copy of a book in a limited edition, to which a number has been assigned.

Numbered entry One of the entries designated by consecutive numbers in a bibliography or a printed book catalogue.

Nut quad An en quadrat.

O

Oasis An area of the stack allocated to select students for research or reading, less formal than a carrel, it is more economic of space, but requires the bookstock to be suitably organized to secure effective direct use by the reader.

Oblong Width exceeding height as 'oblong octavo.'

Obscenity The Obscene Publications Act, 1857 (Section 1), enables a magistrate, upon complaint made before him upon oath that any obscene books, papers, writings, prints, pictures, drawings or other representations are kept in any house, shop, room or other place for the purposes of sale or distribution, exhibition for purposes of gain, lending upon hire, or being otherwise published for purposes of gain, may give authority for the premises to be searched and the material seized, and, ultimately, for publications of the nature referred to, to be destroyed. The test of obscenity is whether the tendency of the matter charged as obscene is to deprave and corrupt those whose minds are open to such immoral influences and into whose hands the publication may fall (*R. v. Hicklin* (1868) 3 Q.B. 360).

In addition to individuals and publishers proceedings have been directed in the past against commercial libraries, the most recent being against a well-known commercial lending library in respect of two books in one of its branches situated in the Isle of Man (1953). The High Bailiff, in giving judgment against the defendants in that case said that he came to the conclusion that the two books were obscene within the meaning of the Act and that he did so with reluctance because he was satisfied that the defendant company had acted in perfectly good faith. Nominal fines were imposed.

There is no report of an action against a librarian or library authority under the Act of 1857 but, in view of the fact that the relevant section makes reference to the purpose of

sale or distribution it is not beyond the bounds of possibility that a librarian or library authority might be proceeded against. A librarian might be held answerable because he 'distributes' an obscene book by placing it upon the shelves of the public library. Although the Act may be open to different interpretations it is felt that it is directed against those whose motive is gain and not against those attempting to carry out their duties under an Act of Parliament in a liberal and broad-minded manner.

The exhibition of a picture in a public gallery is regarded as quite different from selling photographs of it in the streets (*per Lush, J. in R. v. Hicklin, supra*).

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

A.R.H.

Obverse cover The front cover of a book.

Octave device A method originated by S. R. Ranganathan for providing notation for an infinite number of more or less co-equal classes 'in array,' (since adopted in the U.D.C.).

In a numerical notation '9' is not used for a subject but is used as a repeater and classes in array become:

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 91, 92, . . . 98, 991, 992 . . . all having equal status. (cf. the musical scale). See also COLON CLASSIFICATION.

Octavo 1. A sheet of paper folded three times to form a gathering of eight leaves. 2. The following modern sizes are used to produce an octavo page.

	Double	Quad	Size of 8vo
Foolscap	13½ × 17	17 × 27	27 × 34 6½ × 4½
Crown	15 × 20	20 × 30	30 × 40 7½ × 5
Demy	17½ × 22½	22½ × 35	35 × 45 8½ × 5½
Royal	20 × 25	25 × 40	40 × 50 10 × 6½

Octodecimo (18mo) A book in which the sheets are so folded that each leaf is an 18th

ODD SORTS

of the sheet, also colloquially called 'eighteenmo.'

Odd sorts Characters not normally included in the standard fount of type.

'Off its feet' Type which has been cast so that the base is not true, and the letter does not stand firmly in the galley.

Offcut Part of a printed sheet in certain formats, e.g. duodecimo, which is so imposed that normal folding will not bring the pages into correct sequence, and has therefore to be cut off and inserted at the correct place.

Offences Under the Libraries Offences Act, 1898, it is an offence for any person who, in any library, museum, reading room or art gallery, to the annoyance or disturbance of any one using the same—behaves in a disorderly manner; uses violent, abusive or obscene language; bets or gambles; or who, after proper warning, persists in remaining therein beyond the hours fixed for closing. Offenders, on summary conviction, are liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s. The Act also applies to any library or reading room maintained by a Society registered under the Industrial & Provident Societies Act, 1893, or under the Friendly Societies Act, 1896, or by a registered trade union.

It is an offence under the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, for any person unlawfully and maliciously to destroy or damage any book, manuscript, picture, statue, bust or vase, or any other article or thing kept for the purposes of art, science or literature, or as an object of curiosity, in any museum, gallery or library. On conviction, an offender is liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding six months.

It is an offence for a person suffering from an infectious disease to use any book from a public library, or to expose such a book to infection, etc. (see further under **INFECTION**).

Byelaws may be made under the Public Libraries Acts enabling officers or servants of the authority to exclude or remove any person committing an offence against the Act of 1898 or against byelaws. An offence against byelaws carries a fine, or summary conviction, of up to £5 and, in the case of a continuing offence, a further penalty of 40s. for

each day during which the offence continues (see further under **BYELAWS**).

A breach of a library regulation carries no statutory penalty and cannot be prosecuted in the Courts. As to so-called 'Fines' see **FINES**.

Hewitt, A. R. *Law relating to public libraries, museums and art galleries*. 2nd ed., 1947.

'Penalties in public libraries.' *Justice of the Peace* (Journal), 1953, **117**, 653.

'Library fines.' *Justice of the Peace* (Journal), 1953, **117**, 785.

A. R. H.

Official catalogue A catalogue maintained solely for the use of the library staff, the entries often including additional non-bibliographic details for the guidance of staff.

Official name The legal name of a governmental agency or a corporate body.

Offprint A separate printing of an individual article or chapter from a book or periodical, with or without its own title-page, and with or without the type reimposed. Often called **Separate** or **Reprint**.

Offset A mark on a printed sheet caused by ink from another sheet (see also **OFFSET LITHOGRAPHY**).

Offset lithography Lithographic printing in which the impression is taken from the stone or plate on to a rubber roller. Especially useful in making possible the use of rougher finished papers.

Offset paper Paper especially made for use in the offset-litho process. The principal characteristics are stability and freedom from fluff.

Ogle, John James (1858-1909). First librarian of Bootle from 1887-1900, was thereafter appointed Director of Technical Instruction in Bootle and held that post at his death: previously he had attempted unsuccessfully to interest the Library Association in the educational powers conferred upon library authorities by Section 13 of the Public Libraries Act of 1855 and by the Technical Instruction Act of 1889. Initiated the Bootle school delivery service, special borrowing terms for teachers and a Welsh collection.

Author of *The free library* (1897) and the special report to the Education Department on *The connection between the public library and the public elementary school* (1898).

G.J.

Old English A loosely defined term applied either to gothic black letter types or to any heavy faced type.

Old face See OLD STYLE.

Old style Type faces with oblique stress, light colour, little moulding and rather strong serifs. Especially those types used in Venice about 1475-1500. Modern types of this style are revivals of Garamond and Caslon types.

Olin book numbers A means of separating collective from individual biography.¹ They are used similarly to Cutter author numbers but as the symbols for all names begin with A followed immediately by numbers, they precede the Cutter numbers in arrangement.

¹ Dewey, M. *Decimal classification*. 13th ed., 1932.

Omission marks Three dots, thus (...), indicating the omission of a word or words from a transcript.

Omnibus book A large one-volume collection of reprints of several novels or other works of an author originally published separately, or a similar volume of short stories, or of other type of literature, by several authors (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

One shot 1. The reprinting in one issue of a periodical of the full text or an abridgment of a book, as opposed to a serialized reprint. 2. A magazine of which there is but one issue (*Book. Gloss.*).

Onion skin A thin, translucent, glazed paper resembling the outer skin of an onion.

Onlay A decorative panel of paper or other material, superimposed on to the cover of a book (see also INLAY).

Opacity The quality of non-transparency, which is especially important in book papers, e.g. India or Bible. Bright white papers are less opaque than off-white or creamy paper,

and matt finish gives greater opacity than glazed finish.

Open back A style of construction in which the cover is separated from the spine of the book by a special lining (see also OXFORD HOLLOW). Also called Hollow and Loose Back.

Open edge Any edge of a section not closed by a bolt.

Open entry A catalogue entry which provides for the addition of information concerning a work of which the library does not have a complete set, or about which complete information is lacking. The chief use of open entries lies in the cataloguing of serial publications, for the inclusive dates of publication and the total number of volumes cannot be given until publication is complete or discontinued or the library discontinues adding parts.

Wilson Library bulletin, v. 1—

Nov. 1914— New York, H.W.

Wilson, 1914—

v. illus. 26 cm.

On completion, the insertion of the missing details converts the open entry into a 'closed' entry.

Open letter proof A proof of an engraving with the title engraved in outline letters as distinct from the finished engraving which has the details in solid letters.

Open score The score of a musical work for two or more voices, in which each voice part is printed on a separate staff (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Opening Two facing pages of an open book.

Opisthographic Books printed on both sides of the paper. Used chiefly in connection with the earliest products of the press.

Opus number A number assigned to a work or a group of works, of a composer, generally indicating order of composition or of publication (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Organization See ADMINISTRATION.

Original binding The binding that was originally applied to a particular book.

ORNAMENT

Ornament Any decorative device used in printing and binding that is not pictorial, e.g. a type flower, rule, ornamented border.

Outer forme The pages of type which fall on the verso of the sheet and are printed together to perfect the sheet.

Outer indentation The distance from the left edge of a catalogue card at which the author heading begins; on a standard ruled card, at the first vertical line.

Outlier library See NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY.

Outsert An extra double leaf added to a printed gathering around the outside, but forming a part of that gathering for collation purposes.

Over matter Matter composed and ready for printing, but held over for lack of space.

Over-run To displace words from one line to the next by reason of addition or deletion in proof.

Overcasting A method of reinforcing by thread stitching along the binding edge of a section.

Overdue books See FINES.

Overdue notice A postcard or letter sent to a borrower who has failed to return a book by the date due.

Overlay In making ready, the adjustment made by the addition of several sheets of paper under the block or type in order to increase pressure at that point and make an

even impression. Mechanical overlays made by an etching process are also used in illustration work.

Overprinting 1. Application of a varnish or lacquer to printed matter from a type or litho process, by means of a brush, spray or roller coating. 2. Printing in a primary colour over an existing colour print to obtain a compound shade.

Overrun Copies surplus to the number ordered.

Overs The number of sound copies over after the printing of the net number of copies ordered.

Over sewing Sewing, by hand or machine, through the back edges of each section in consecutive order, so that each section is sewn to the adjacent section.

Ownership mark A bookplate, stamp, label or the like, identifying material as library property.

Oxford corners In book-finishing, border rules that cross and project beyond each other.

Oxford hollow A tube-like lining, flattened, and with one side stuck to the covering and the other to the spine of the book.

Oxford India paper Very thin, soft, tough and opaque paper similar to India paper about 8lb demy (480). Used by the Oxford University Press and first made at their Wolvercote Mill in 1875. Copied from an Indian paper first brought to Oxford in 1841.

P

Padding The blank leaves added at the back of a thin pamphlet when it is bound as a sizeable volume.

Padeloup, Antoine Michel (1685-1769). One of the most famous binders in France in the 18th century. Two generations of his family before, and two after him were prominent binders. He developed the *dentelle* or lace pattern in decoration, a style that succeeded the *pointille* of Gascon, which is characterized by its inlays of coloured leathers of diapered simple geometrical form, devoid of any floreateation.

Page One side of a leaf in a book.

Page break The point in the text of a book where one page ends and the next one begins (*Book. Gloss.*).

Page catalogue One in which only a few entries are made on a page at first, with spaces left for the insertion of subsequent entries in correct order. The catalogues in the Reading Room of the British Museum Library and in the Bodleian Library are of this variety (*see also* GUARD BOOK CATALOGUE).

Page cord A water resistant cord used by printers to secure type after setting into pages.

Page headline The chapter head or caption printed at the top of a page as an indication of the contents (*see also* HEADLINE, RUNNING TITLE).

Page proofs Proofs pulled from type after division into pages.

Page reference In book indexes, bibliographies, printed book catalogues, etc., the number of the page on which an article, word or entry indexed is to be found in a particular volume.

Pagination 1. The consecutive numbering of the pages of a book. Normal practice is for preliminary matter to be paged in roman and

for the text to be paged in arabic numerals. Pagination replaced the earlier practice of foliation about 1500. 2. In a catalogue entry, that part of the collation which states the number of pages in the book.

Pamphlet 1. In a restricted technical sense, an independent publication consisting of a few leaves of printed matter stitched together but not bound; usually enclosed in paper covers. While independent in the sense that each pamphlet is complete in itself it is a common custom to issue pamphlets in series, usually numbered consecutively. In local library practice, there is variation in the maximum number of leaves or pages allowed under the term. 2. A brief controversial treatise on a topic of current interest, usually religious or political; common in England from the 16th to the 18th century (*ALA. Gloss.*).

Pamphlet-style library binding A style of binding for a pamphlet or a thin group of pamphlets when use is expected to be infrequent. Its characteristics are side stitching covered with plain boards, heavy paper, paper-covered boards or thin lightweight cloth, cut flush, without gold lettering.

Pamphlet volume A volume composed of a number of separate pamphlets bound together either with or without a general title-page or table of contents (*ALA. Gloss.*).

Panel 1. A rectangular space on the cover, enclosed by lines, or sunk. 2. A space on the back between any two raised bands or between two parallel lines or sets of lines.

Panel back In 'extra' binding, a style of finishing having gold or blind lines in rectangular form between the raised bands on the back.

Panizzi, Sir Anthony (1797-1879). Keeper of Printed Books in the British Museum from 1837 until his appointment as Principal

Librarian in 1856, which post he held for a further decade, is renowned as a librarian for his tenacious enforcement of the Copyright Act, for the conception which he inspired of the British Museum as the second best library in the world for the literature of any major language other than English, for his collaborative formulation of the 91 cataloguing rules to be used in the Museum and for the great circular, centrally administered reading room of the Museum designed in detail by Smirke. (*Lives* by Fagan, 2 vols., 1880, and Brooks, 1932.)

G.J.

Panoramic catalogue The endless chain principle adapted for displaying catalogue entries.

Pantone printing Planographic letterpress process using mercury or amalgam coated non-printing areas. Does not require art paper for fine screen work.

Paper Thin sheets of fibrous material obtained by the maceration of rags, straw, wood or leaves. The fibrous matter must be separated from the surrounding vegetable substance, cleansed with water and made into a liquid pulp from which suitable quantities are taken by the maker on to a shallow sieve-like tray through which the water drains, leaving a matted sheet of fibre. When dried and surface-finished, this sheet is paper, suitable for writing or printing.

Paper was first invented in China about A.D. 105, being then a soft absorbent type made from bark, rags and hemp, chiefly appropriate for brush writing, but not for the strains of printing. Specimens dated c. A.D. 150 were discovered by A. Stein in the Great Wall of China, and are now preserved in the British Museum. The earliest paper document bearing a definite date is one found by Sven Hedin at Loulan (A.D. 264), but block printed books do not appear until the 9th century. Paper-making was introduced into Japan (c. 610) via Korea, and a highly organized industry existed as early as 800, using as raw materials paper mulberry gampi, mitsumata and waste paper. The westward spread of the invention was along the traditional caravan routes, and has been traced through Niya

(c. 250), Turfan (399), Samarkand (c. 751) and thence through Baghdad (793) to Damascus, Egypt (850) and Morocco (1100). By 950 paper made from linen and flax had entirely replaced papyrus in Egypt. Mills were established about 1150 by the Moors at Xativa in Spain, with an extensive export trade even to the Levant in fine papers. Paper had been introduced into Sicily as early as 1102; the earliest dated document being of 1109; but it was prohibited for use in public documents by the Emperor Frederick II in 1221. A Genoese deed of 1235 mentions no fewer than three paper mills in the neighbourhood, and the important Fabriano mills were well established by 1283.

Watermarks, not known in Eastern papers were introduced in these Italian papers, and consisted at first of simple crosses or circles, perhaps denoting the maker's name. By the early 13th century paper was in common use in France and Germany, and by the next century in England and the Netherlands. Valuable details of the early manufacture in Germany are given in the diary (1390) of Ulman Stromer of Nurnberg, and for Italy in the cost book of the Ripoli Press in Florence (1474-83).

Paper-making in England is first associated with John Tate (c. 1495), whose fine white product (perhaps as contrasted with other mills producing coarse wrapping papers) was used and celebrated by Wynkyn de Worde, but, probably owing to foreign competition, Tate ceased operations early in the next century. More significant is John Spilman (d. 1626) who had a mill near Dartford about 1588, supported by a royal monopoly (1589) to collect rags. Later important English paper mills include John Whatman, who established a series of mills in Kent, which became famous for fine quality hand-made grades suitable for artist work, and for durable writing and account book papers. Since 1848 these papers have been made at the Springfield Mill, and, due to the impending labour shortage, have since 1937, been greatly supplemented by paper made on a mould machine. It is probable that the Whatman mills produced the first Occidental wove papers, and that these may have been supplied to Baskerville.

The manufacture of paper by hand has

remained remarkably constant since the earliest times, only few mechanical improvements being made, as the introduction of the Hollander or mechanical cutter and beater in the 17th century.

The process is basically as follows. Rags are collected, sorted for colour, type and cleanliness, and boiled preferably without pressure in a mild solution of caustic soda. The rags are then washed in a constant stream of water, and, if bleach is used to reduce colour, it must be carefully removed. The material is then passed through a beating machine called the Hollander, where a solid cylinder fitted with iron knives rotates in a tub. During this process the rags are disintegrated. The stock or stuff is now passed into the stuff chest where the fibres are held in suspension in water, constantly stirred by an agitator. At this stage other substances such as loading matter or size may be added. The vat man plunges the mould with the deckle in position into the vat, removes pulp in a horizontal position, and by careful tilting and shaking causes a ripple to run across the surface, thus setting the fibres. The mould is now laid aside until the stock has dried sufficiently for the deckle to be removed, whereupon the coucher lays the sheet alternately with felts in a pile for further drying.

Successive sheets of paper alternate with felts to a height of about 18 in. This post is then pressed to remove moisture. Sheets are then separated into bunches and hung over hair ropes in a drying loft for natural drying followed by sizing. Size varies according to the type of paper, but basically is an animal glue which imparts a thin coating on the paper which enables ink to be used without running. Size may be added during the liquid stage of the pulp (engine sizing) or preferably the sheets are dipped individually (tub sizing). The hardness of finish may be increased by further sizing. Finishing is the compression of the sheets between plates of metal to impart a smooth surface to the paper. After this process, paper is stacked and allowed to mature for a lengthy period until it is marketed. The whole process may take several months and in early time manufacture was frequently delayed by weather conditions. A perennial difficulty is to obtain sufficient

skilled labour and especially to ensure a reasonable regularity of thickness in the sheets. The actual dimensions of sheets varies greatly from 11 × 16 in. upwards; in the 15th century 14 × 19 in. seems to have been normal. Caxton used 15½ × 22 in. paper in the *Golden legend* (1483). The largest paper manufactured is Antiquarian (31 × 53 in.) by Whatman, and requires several men and special gear. British paper was greatly handicapped by duties levied by the customs authorities in the 18th and 19th centuries on the size of sheets, which caused, *inter alia*, newspapers until 1818 to be issued in sheets 22 × 32 in.

The demand for paper in the 18th century was such that numerous but unsuccessful experiments were made into sources of new raw materials, e.g. Réaumur in Germany, Koops in England, and in France by the great firm of Didot, who owned some very ancient mills at Essonnes. In 1797 an employee named N. L. Robert succeeded in inventing a machine for the manufacture of a continuous sheet of paper, but the idea was developed and perfected by the English engineers John Gamble and Bryan Donkin, who patented the machine in 1801. The Fourdrinier brothers bought out the Didot interests and on January 13, 1812, the first Fourdrinier machine commenced commercial operation. In this machine, of which the fundamental principle remains unchanged, the individual mould is replaced by an endless moving wire web varying in width from 30 to 320 in., on to which the liquid pulp is poured from the vat, and along which it progresses at speeds between 100 and 1,900 feet per minute according to the type of paper in preparation. Drainage is effected through the wire web, greatly aided by the supporting table rolls. The dandy roll, which is placed towards the dry end of the machine, is a hollow wire cylinder, invented by Marshall in 1826, which impresses on the damp sheet a pattern similar to the lines left by a laid mould, including the watermark. The sheet is wound through a series of drying and calendering rollers and finally is wound into a roll for marketing.

The length of the sheet is largely determined by convenience in handling.

New sources of raw material became

urgently necessary in the 19th century, but it was not until 1840 that Keller obtained a German patent for manufacturing pulp from ground wood, possibly as a result of the work of Matthias Koops about 1800. 'Ground-wood' or 'mechanical wood' pulp often mixed with rag fibre, became commercially practicable by 1850; but by 1857, Tilghman in Paris was experimenting with the reduction of wood fibres by the 'sulphite' processes. Between 1857-60, T. Routledge introduced Esparto Grass into England for paper-making; and in 1884 the 'sulphate' process was invented by C. F. Dahl. 'Sulphite' pulp was first produced on a commercial scale in Canada by Riordon in 1888. Other features of modern paper include 'loading,' i.e. adding china clay or similar compounds to the pulp in order to obtain a more solid and opaque paper, a practice introduced by Cookworthy, c. 1807; and 'coating' by which the surface of the paper has actually brushed on to it clay or compounds of titanium or alumina to give, when calendered a highly glossy homogeneous surface, much favoured in fine process work. This invention, perhaps copied from Chinese practice was made in 1764 by G. Cummings, but only developed after 1852. In the mid-1890's, casein replaced glue (which had originally been used) as the adhesive agent, and the present-day fine art papers became practicable. To-day paper is marketed in an enormous variety of styles and books may be printed on stock especially chosen for its suitability to illustrations and the method of their reproduction, to the typography and for length of life. A limited quantity of pure rag paper is still made, but the normal practice is to use a careful balance of wood, esparto or straw pulp for most book papers.

Casey, J. P. *Pulp and paper*. 2 vols., 1952.
Clapperton, R. H. and Henderson, W.

Modern paper making. 1929.

Hunter, D. *Papermaking*. 1947.

Labarre, E. J. *Dictionary and encyclopaedia of paper and paper-making*. 2nd ed., 1952.

Stephenson, J. N. *Pulp and paper manufacture*. 4 vols., 1950.

The *Paper maker* and *Bowater papers* are valuable for their scholarly articles on the historical aspect of paper.

R.N.L.

Paper-bound Bound simply with a paper cover. Also called paper-backed.

Paper sizes Standard sizes of paper are named according to the variety of purpose for which it is intended; thus writing and printing papers range from foolscap ($13\frac{1}{2} \times 17$ in.) to imperial (22×30 in.). Ledger papers, foolscap ($13\frac{1}{2} \times 17$ in.) to ledger super royal (19×27 in.). Cover papers, cover medium ($18\frac{1}{2} \times 23\frac{1}{2}$ in.) to cover double crown ($20\frac{1}{2} \times 30\frac{1}{2}$ in.) and wrapping papers from double double imperial (45×58 in.) through a miscellaneous number of sizes to bag cap (20×24 in.).

Before the invention of the Fourdrinier machine there was wide variation in the size of moulds, and authorities differ on the exact measurements. For this subject see Hunter, D. *Papermaking*. 1947.

Paperback A book in paper covers. Common term for novels of the late 19th century.

Papyrology The study of papyrus: also the study of the history of paper.

Papyrus A writing material used in ancient Egypt, derived from a species of reed plentiful in the Nile delta. As described by Pliny the manufacture involved unrolling the stem, and laying the flat sections across each other with the fibres at right angles, on a sloping table. These fibres were immersed in Nile water, pressed together and dried in the sun, afterwards receiving a high polish. Pieces of papyrus were frequently joined into a roll, the extreme length now surviving being the Harris papyrus ($133 \times 16\frac{1}{2}$ ft). Sheets were also folded once into groups or quires and, when stabbed together with a binding cord, were known as a *Codex* and represent the early form of the modern book. Quires of 10 or 12 leaves appear to have been the most convenient. Papyrus supplies apparently diminished early in the Christian era, and as a writing material it was gradually superseded between the 3rd and 6th centuries by parchment and vellum. By A.D. 950 papyrus had been entirely replaced in Egypt by paper, and its last recorded use for writing is in 1057. Under the peculiar conditions of Egypt, papyrus is an excellent writing material,

and documents survive from the 3rd millennium B.C. but elsewhere the humidity of the climate is fatal. Much classical Greek and early Christian literature survive only in papyrus text.

Paragraph mark (§) The sign used to indicate a new paragraph or break in the text.

Parallel classification The removal of certain types of books, usually of all classes, from their normal place in the main classification and their arrangement in a parallel classified sequence elsewhere.

Well-known examples are the sequences of oversized books, reserve stacks and 'restricted' books (see also **BROKEN ORDER**).

Paraph An ornamented flourish at the end of an autograph signature.

Parchment 1. A thin, strong writing material made from real goat- or sheep-skin. 2. Papers made to simulate the real skin, i.e. (a) vegetable parchment, a thin, greaseproof sulphate paper, immersed in acid and afterwards washed. Is largely waterproof. (b) Various industrial types such as soft vegetable parchment, oiled parchment, glazed imitation parchment. 3. Parchment substitute, a hand-made paper usually with deckle edge used for legal documents, has a characteristic greasy surface and is suitable for steel pen and Indian ink.

Parentheses Curved signs, thus (), used in cataloguing to denote inclusion, to enclose inserted explanatory or qualifying words and phrases, or to distinguish particular parts of an entry. Also known as *Curves*. To be distinguished from brackets.

Parr, George Assistant librarian at the London Institution, devised and first described at the Manchester Library Association conference of 1879 the system of recording book loans by filing book cards or slips behind guides each bearing a borrower's name and arranged in alphabetical order.

G.J.

Part 1. One of the subordinate portions into which a volume has been divided by the publisher. It usually has a special title, half-title or cover title, and may have separate or continuous pagination, foliation or

register, but it is included under the collective title-page or cover title of the volume which is intended to contain it. It is distinguished from a fascicle by being a unit rather than a temporary division of a unit. 2. The music for any one of the participating voices or instruments in a musical work. 3. The written or printed copy of such a part for the use of a singer or player (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Partial bibliography A bibliography compiled within some arbitrary limitation, perhaps limited to periodicals only, or books on one subject limited to certain country or period of time, etc., but within the stated limitation as complete as possible (see also **SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY**).

Partial contents note A note, following the collation of a catalogue entry, listing only the more important items in the book.

Partial title A catch title consisting of only a part of the title as given on the title-page. It may be a secondary part of the title, as a sub-title or alternative title, or the title with the less significant words omitted.

Paste-down (or board paper) That half of the end-paper which is pasted to the inner face of the cover.

Paste-in A correction or an addition to a text supplied after the main impression, and tipped into the book opposite the place to which it refers (see also **CANCEL**).

Pattern In binding magazines and other series of volumes, a sample volume or sample back or rubbing and/or other data used to enable the bookbinder to match the style of binding.

Payne, Roger (1739-97). An English binder of the 18th century who bound many books of great distinction.

In hand-binding, a style with ornaments free and flowing in stem and flower. Before Payne's time they had been stiff and formal. The honeysuckle is a customary ornament. The impressions of the tools are usually studded round with gold dots, whether used in borders, corners or centre pieces.

Pearl An obsolete size of type equivalent to 5 point.

PELLET'S PROCESS

Pellet's process A blueprint process introduced in 1877. This method is suitable for the reproduction of line drawings only, and the prints have blue lines on a near-white background. As in the blueprint process ferric salts on the paper used are reduced to a ferrous state by the action of light. Instead of water, a ferro-cyanide is used as developer, which combines with the remaining ferric salts to give a blue image.

Perfecting machine A machine with two impression cylinders and which prints both sides of a sheet at one operation.

Period printing Production of books in a style appropriate to the period at which they were originally issued.

Periodical A publication issued at regular or irregular intervals, each issue normally being numbered consecutively, distinguished from other serials in that the process of publication is continuous with no predetermined termination. Within this definition are included periodicals which are commercial ventures, usually containing material on a variety of topics, those of a like kind published by societies and institutions, also the regular proceedings, transactions, annual reports, etc., of those bodies. This latter group is usually distinguished in cataloguing by being entered under the heading of the particular society or institution, other periodicals normally receiving entry under title.

Periodical case A case, usually consisting of two stiff boards covered by buckram or other bookbinding material, in which one issue of a periodical can be kept during its period of currency. The case normally is lettered on its front side with the name of the periodical.

Periodical stack A stack constructed to display periodicals, with space on lower shelves for storage of back numbers. Some stacks are designed with hinged sloping shelves to allow back numbers to be stored under the sloping shelves.

Personal authorship Authorship of a work by an individual, the responsibility for the thought and expression embodied in the work resting solely on him as a private person and not by virtue of any office held by him within

a corporate body, nor on the corporate body as a whole.

Personal catalogue One in which is entered under a person's name as heading, both books by and books about him.

Personal name entry The record of a book in a catalogue under the name of an individual (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

pH value Measurements of acid or alkaline content of paper. pH 7 is neutral; pH — is acid, pH + is alkaline; thus pH 2 is acid.

Phase The use of a particular method of division in classification, where the method is loosely connected with the subject divided. When a fresh 'phase' of division (e.g. one based on form) is introduced some classification makers use a symbol to denote the change (e.g. the 'O' in the *Decimal classification*).

Phase also occurs when two or more subjects are connected in some way in a book and the relationship has to be shown. Further instances and explanations may be found in: Palmer, B. L. and Wells, A. J. *The fundamentals of library classification*. 1951. Chapter V. See also COLON CLASSIFICATION.

Photo-charging Photo-charging has recently been experimented with at Wandsworth Central Library, London, where the record of issues was photographed on to 16 mm panchromatic film by use of the Recordak Microfilmer. The machine photographs at a reduction of 26:1 and a reader is incorporated for viewing; this gives a magnification of 24 times the film frame. The microfilmer is primarily used by banks, insurance companies and other business houses, but it has proved most effective for book charging and could be used for microfilming other library documents if so required.

Procedure

(a) *Charging* Date labels and normal pocket type tickets are not required. White transaction cards (3 × 2 in.) of a similar material to that used for the ordinary catalogue card are used in place of the date label and each reader, on registration, is issued with one ticket only of the season ticket type. The ticket contains the usual

particulars, the borrower's name, address and date of expiry.

The transaction cards are serially numbered from one onwards and printed: 'Not to be removed under any circumstances,' 'Book due to be returned on or before the last date given below.' The approximate number of cards required for any day's issue is pre-dated with the date due. In addition, a bold serial letter is stamped on the transaction card just in front of the serial number and indicates the week of issue. The letters A-L are used, thus giving 12 batches of transaction cards to be used at weekly intervals. The serial letter acts as an instantaneous guide to any fines which may be due.

When a reader brings his books to the library counter for issue, the appropriate book cards are extracted and laid side by side on the microfilmer. On top of each is placed a transaction card, taken from the numbered file (the accession number on the book card must project above the transaction card) and the reader's ticket. A switch is pressed and the record of the issue is thus photographed. Up to four separate issues may be laid side by side on the microfilmer and photographed at one and the same time. The pairs of transaction cards and book cards are inserted in the appropriate book pocket and remain there until the reader returns the books; the reader keeps his ticket.

The day's total issue can be readily obtained by subtracting the serial number of the first transaction card from the last used each day.

Automatic adding machines are used to record the issues of 'Adult Non-Fiction,' 'Junior Non-Fiction' and 'Junior Fiction.' The difference between the total of these and the grand total for the day gives the issue of 'Adult Fiction.'

(b) *Discharging* The front cover of the book is opened and the assistant can immediately see from the serial letter on the transaction card whether a fine is due. If no fine is due, the reader goes into the library with no delay after which the assistant will extract the transaction card from the book pocket and drop it into a

box for subsequent filing by weekly letter and number.

(c) *Overdues* At the end of the period of grace, the relevant files of transaction cards are checked. Any numbers missing from the sequence indicate books not yet returned. The appropriate film is then put into the microfilmer and overdues can be written from it direct as the film itself contains all the necessary detail, e.g. reader's name and address, date due for return and accession number of the book.

(d) *Reservations* Books with more than one reserve are permanently reserved by rubber stamping the book pocket. A visible index panel is used to list individual reserves. Incoming books are checked against it.

(e) *Renewals* If the book is not presented, a duplicate transaction card of a different colour is made out with the original details which must be given by the reader. This card is filed with the cards representing books returned. Subsequently, when the book itself is returned, the reader indicates that it has been renewed and the original transaction card is substituted in the files in place of the duplicate which is destroyed.

(f) *New readers* The reader's registration card is photographed if the reader wishes to take books out immediately. The new ticket will be given out on the reader's next visit.

The photographic method of charging was compared with the Browne system over a period of three months. The main findings were as follows:

1. There is no saving in time in the actual issue of books. As Browne is relatively quick, this cannot be considered any disadvantage of photo-charging.
2. The time taken to discharge a book is reduced, on average, by over two-thirds. If readers are trained to place the books on the counter with the front cover open, the time taken to discharge them can be reduced to fractions of a second and queueing at the 'in' counter can be abolished.
3. As transaction cards only have to be filed and as they do not have to be counted, the time previously taken for

PHOTO-CHARGING

filing and counting the 'charges' is reduced by 40 per cent.

4. Writing one ticket per reader instead of the four previously used reduces clerical labour by 75 per cent.
5. In larger libraries, reductions could be made in staff establishments; obviously this depends on local circumstances. In all libraries, the photographic charger will save a considerable part of the time otherwise employed on the mechanics of issue and discharge and its associated processes. This time can be utilized for more important work.
6. The machine is best operated by an assistant who is seated. It requires only a very simple library counter, which in itself would be cheaper than the traditional library counters and would help to improve the appearance of the lending library.
7. The photo-charger facilitates the division of work into professional and non-professional. The cost of operation is low—26,000 issues can be accommodated on the 200 ft length of film (on the basis of each reader borrowing, on average, two books). The cost of this length of film, including development, is approximately 2 gns. or about 1s. 7½d. per 1,000 issues. This charge is offset by savings in the number of tickets issued.
8. While the initial cost of the machine is in the region of £400, providing the library is large enough to have its establishment reduced, the resultant saving in salaries very speedily offsets the initial outlay.
9. The number of books on loan to a reader is not automatically limited as his ticket is always in his possession. If such a limitation is required, tokens can be used; alternatively, as a compromise, a limit can be placed on the number of books issued at any one time.
10. Although there is little which can go wrong with the microfilmer itself, like all machines it is certain to break down sometime and emergency measures should be thought out in advance. A temporary Browne system could be used by slipping book cards and ticket into a pocket.

Finally, it can be said that photo-charging proves to be a most efficient method of recording issues; one which is particularly quick for discharging, gives a complete record of each transaction and considerably reduces the amount of manual work required by the Browne system.

E.V.C.

Photo-litho-offset Photolithography in which the image is transferred to a special rubber roller from which printing is effected.

Photocopy A copy of a document produced by photographic means. 'Photostat' is a trade name, and should only be used in referring to a photocopy produced on a Photostat machine.

Photoengraving The production of a design on a sensitized metal plate making use of the properties of certain chemicals which are rendered insoluble in water after exposure to light. The interposition of a photographic negative ensures transference of the design in correct tonal values, and etching removes the non-printing areas.

Photogravure A photomechanical intaglio illustration process in which a half-tone screen is not interposed between the subject and the camera, but an acid-resist screen is laid direct on the printing cylinder on which the image is also exposed for printing after etching. A notable feature is the special flexible metal knife, the 'doctor blade' which removes surplus ink from the surface of the cylinder.

Photolithography A photomechanical application of the lithographic principle in which the image is transferred to a sensitized metal plate by photographic means.

Phrase pseudonym A pseudonym consisting not of a name but a phrase, as 'A member of the legal profession.'

Piano-vocal score A common form of publication for musical works originally composed for chorus and/or solo voices and orchestra. Examples are cantatas, oratorios and operas. Often called also 'vocal score,' a piano-vocal score of such a work consists of the original vocal parts and an arrangement

for piano of the orchestral accompaniment (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Pica 1. A printer's measure used for computing length of lines and depth of type pages: approximately $\frac{1}{16}$ in. 2. An obsolete name for a size of type, approximately 12 point.

Pickering, William (1796-1854). An English publisher and bookseller whose fine taste in book production made his imprint famous. His first volume appeared in 1821. He was one of the first to use cloth as binding material. He was a student of early printing and in his book production worked closely with the Chiswick Press. Together they led the way to the revival of the original Caslon types, though the first book to use the old types was *Lady Willoughby's diary* with the Longman imprint. His editions of the classics were especially notable; the Oxford Classics, the Diamond Classics, the Aldine Poets and editions of Walton. He adopted the dolphin and anchor device of Aldus with the appropriate inscription, *Aldi Discip. Anglus*.

Pickup Type-matter which has been retained as an economy, and is used again in a new impression.

Pictorial map A map containing pictures that indicate distribution of physical and biological features, social and economic characteristics, etc. (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Picture collections See ILLUSTRATION COLLECTIONS.

Pie Accidentally mixed type. An ancient term in printing, also spelled pye.

Pigskin Leather made from the skin of a pig. The graining can be easily distinguished by the little hair punctures that show on the surface.

Pinhead morocco A morocco of the hard-grained type, but with the grain smaller and less distinct than in the morocco called 'hard-grained.'

Pirated edition An edition published illegally, e.g. an edition issued in violation of copyright privilege. Also called 'pirated reprint' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Pitt, Septimus Albert (1878-1937). City Librarian of Coventry from 1908-15, and of Glasgow until his death, where he had as branch superintendent between 1903 and 1908 been responsible for much development work, including a branch interchange service; organized the first municipal commercial library in Britain in Glasgow in November, 1916. Acted as library adviser in South Africa, Kenya and the Irish Free State, served on the Kenyon committee and had by the time of his death planned a manual of commercial and technical library practice for the Library Association series.

G.J.

Placard catalogue A list of books displayed on a large sheet, or sheets, and hung up for consultation.

Place of printing The town in which a book is printed: usually included in the imprint or in the colophon if one is present.

Place of publication 1. The business address of the publishing house that issues the book. 2. As normally used in the imprint of a catalogue entry, the city or town in which the publishing house is located.

Placement The position of the text within each frame of a micro-reproduction.

1. Lines of text across the entire width of the film.
2. Lines of text parallel to the edge of the film.
3. Lines of text half-way across the width of the film, with another page occupying the remainder.
4. Lines of text only quarter-way across the width of the film.

Plan 1. A delineation in a horizontal, vertical or oblique plane, showing the relative position of the parts of an architectural (including naval) or engineering structure. For working drawings of an individual part of such a structure, or for schemes for electrical or mechanical equipment. 2. A drawing, in a horizontal plane, showing the arrangement of (a) features in a landscape design, e.g. a garden, park, an estate; (b) position of streets and buildings in a projected town, zoned area or similar development; (c) furniture and

PLANNING

furnishings in a building or room, e.g. an interior, a stage setting and properties, seats in an auditorium. Planning plans for a flower border are to be considered diagrams. For plans showing (a) the arrangement of equipment for games or athletics, or for efficiency in business, manufacturing, etc.; (b) the relative location of musical instruments in an orchestra; or (c) the details of an individual piece of furniture or equipment. 3. A graphic presentation of a tactical military or naval plan (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Planning See ARCHITECTURE, PLANNING; MODULAR PLANNING.

Planography Printing processes, e.g. lithography, which are dependent on the antipathy of oily ink and water, enabling designs to be drawn on and printed from flat surfaces.

Plantin, Christopher (1514-89). Born near Tours; established a printing house at Antwerp in 1555, soon becoming one of the most celebrated of his day. Notable publications include the polyglot Bible (8v. 1569-73). His books were famed for the accuracy of their text and the beauty of the presswork. Typographically Plantin favoured the French style, and is said to have purchased some of the Garamond material in 1561. In 1571 he became court printer to Philip II of Spain and amassed a fortune, which, however, was soon lost owing to the disapproval of the great Bible, and the failure of his royal patron to provide finance. In 1583 he moved to Leyden, but shortly after returned to Antwerp, where he died. The firm continued in the hands of his family until 1867 when the house and equipment became the municipally owned Plantin-Moretus Museum.

Plate 1. A flat piece of metal that bears matter to be printed, either in relief, intaglio or on the surface. 2. An electrotype or stereotype derived from a relief plate. 3. A full page of illustration, on a leaf which is usually of different paper from that used for the text, the reverse often being blank but may bear a descriptive legend or another plate. Plates are not generally included in the regular pagination of the book, but not invariably so nowadays. Plates are differentiated from other kinds of illustration and specified individually

in the 'illustrations' section of the collation in cataloguing.

Plate cylinder The roller of an offset printing press which bears the printing plate.

Plate guarded and hooked An illustration attached to a narrow strip of paper or linen (the guard) which is then folded and hooked-in or around a section before sewing.

Plate line A characteristic mark in intaglio printing, especially of engravings, due to the great pressure exerted by the engraving press on the paper. The design being incised into the plate, this extra pressure is necessary to effect transfer of ink to the paper, and in the process the shape of the plate is embossed additionally.

Plate number A serial number given by music publishers to each piece of music for identification. It appears on each leaf, and occasionally on the title-page, and may be used for assigning dates.

Plate paper A soft, heavy paper of good substance, formerly rags, made for steel plate or photogravure printing. Cheaper esparto qualities are the modern equivalent.

Plate revision A revision of a stereotype plate confined to small textual changes which may be made without disturbing the lines of the impressed plate.

Platen press A flat bed printing press as invented by Gordon in 1856, having type in a vertical position as distinct from the rotary or the traditional press.

Playertype See REFLEX COPYING.

Pocket A pocket on the inside of a book cover (usually the back cover) provided as a receptacle for loose maps and the like, accompanying the book (see also POCKET PART).

Pocket card charging A method of recording loans which is used in most public lending libraries in Great Britain. The books on the shelves contain a small pocket which holds a card carrying details of the book. Readers are supplied with tickets which are in the form of a pocket so that, when a book is borrowed, the book card is transferred from the book pocket to the reader's ticket. The

only other process needed at the time of loan is stamping the date of return on a label in the book. The book card projects from the reader's ticket to show the number under which it is filed, a separate sequence being maintained for each return date. When the book is returned the stamped date indicates the appropriate file and the charge unit is removed, the book card being replaced in the book and the ticket being restored to the borrower. As the combined unit, or 'charge,' is filed in book order, detailed statistics of loans may be compiled and also the charging system may be used to intercept reserved books by inserting stop signals in the charges. The filed unit carries all information needed for preparing overdue notices.

Numerous versions of pocket card charging exist but the earliest form is attributed to C. G. Virgo, Librarian and Curator of Bradford, who introduced a method in 1873. The system as used to-day is sometimes attributed to Miss Nina E. Browne or to James Duff Brown, both of whom were responsible for important simplifications.

Pocket part In bound copies of music for trios, quartets and so on, one score (usually that for the piano) is frequently bound as the main book, incorporating compensating guards and a pocket inside the back cover. The other instrumental parts are then bound separately in limp covers for insertion into the pocket; such a part is called a Pocket Part.

Point system 1. The standard typographical measure, having each body size an exact multiple or division of all the others. 72 points equal .9962 of an inch. Originally conceived by Fournier in the 18th century, the point system replaced the traditional picturesque names based on custom only.

Polyglot Descriptive of a book containing parallel texts in several languages, especially a dictionary of terms in more than two languages.

Polygraphic Written by several authors.

Polytopical Descriptive of a book treating of several subjects.

Popular name A shortened, abbreviated or simplified form of the official name of a

governmental agency or other corporate body, by which it is commonly known (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Pornography From the Greek, meaning writing about harlots, originally applied only to treatise on prostitutes and prostitution. Currently describes writings whose publication and distribution are illegal because of an obscene or licentious character. Sometimes catalogues include such items under the terms 'erotica,' 'curiosa' or 'facetiae' (*Book. Gloss.*).

Porphyry, Tree of See BIFURCATE CLASSIFICATION.

Portfolio A case for holding loose papers, engravings or similar material, consisting of two covers joined together at the back and usually tied at the front and the ends.

Portrait The likeness of a person, especially the face, presumably made from life, by graphic or photographic means, as distinct from a caricature.

Positive A photographic film or print in which the tones are the same as those of the document copied. In documentary reproduction the positive print is usually the second stage, the first being the production of a negative (*see also* AUTOPOSITIVE PAPER).

Pre-library bound Of new books, bound in library binding prior to or at the time of original sale. Called 'prebound' for short.

Predicables The five predicables are words which show what qualities may be predicated or affirmed of terms in classification. They are:

Genus A group which is capable of division into two or more groups called species. The *summum genus* is the comprehensive class from which the first species are taken.

Species are groups into which the genus may be divided. Any one species may, in its turn, be capable of further division into species, when for that purpose it becomes a genus—and so on down to the most minute species required, the *infima species*.

Difference The feature by which we divide the genus into species is the difference.

PREFACE

It is some quality added to the genus which differentiates the part from the whole.

Property is some common quality possessed by any group, but which is not essential to the definition or recognition of that group.

Accident is a property, the possession of which is quite accidental and which does not affect other qualities.

Preface A brief discourse or note, most frequently by the author of the book, preceding the text, normally explaining the purpose of the author in writing the book, its plan and development, often indicating the class of reader for whom the book is intended, and acknowledging assistance received. Sometimes a preface may be considered as important as the text, as in the case of the prefaces of George Bernard Shaw to his plays.

Preface date The date given at the beginning or end of the preface.

Preliminaries All those pages of a book preceding the main body of the text. Specifically, the items contained on those pages, including some or all of the following: half-title, frontispiece, title-page(s), dedication, preface or foreword, contents table, list of illustrations, introduction. The section of a book containing the preliminaries is ordinarily the last to be printed, since the contents table and list of illustrations cannot be compiled until the text is complete, and is therefore given a separate signature or signatures and often bears separate pagination.

Additional matter following the text is termed subsidiaries.

Preliminary edition An edition issued in advance of a permanent edition, sometimes for criticism before the final edition is published (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Preprints 1. An impression printed in advance of the regular publication especially of a periodical article. 2. Printed synopses of papers to be delivered at a conference, circulated in advance to enable informed discussion to take place.

Presentation copy A copy of a book bearing an inscription of presentation, generally by the author; or a copy of a book presented by the publisher (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Press A double-sided book-case of not less than four tiers (*i.e.* two each side) not placed against a wall. In American usage a single-sided book-case with more than two sets of shelves.

Press errors Errors made by the compositor in setting type, not chargeable to the author.

Press number Small figures which in books printed between 1680 and c. 1823 often appear at the foot of a page, sometimes twice in a gathering. The figures indicate on which press in the printer's workshop the sheet was printed or perhaps the identity of the worker.

Press proofs Final proofs (page proofs) sent to the author before machining.

Press queries Questions arising from MS. obscurities, referred by the printer's proof reader to the author.

Press release An official or authoritative statement giving information for publication in newspapers or periodicals on a specified date; usually in mimeographed form. Also known as 'release' and 'news release' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Pressmark A symbol indicating the room, case and sometimes shelf, where a book is kept. This is not so precise as the call number for it is used in old libraries to indicate the press in which the book is shelved, not the book's specific place (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Presumed author See ATTRIBUTED AUTHOR.

Print A general term for engravings, *i.e.* copper, steel or mezzotints. Also extended to lithographic impressions.

Print page The actual surface or area occupied by the type.

Printed as manuscript 1. Printed from manuscript without final editorial revision; or according to a special style indicated by the MS. 2. Printed for private circulation, *e.g.* not as a trade edition.

Printed but not published Printed but not offered for sale.

Printer The actual workman who makes the impression of type as distinct from the publisher or bookseller. The distinction only became apparent after the 16th century.

Printer's device An emblem, often of great artistic merit, used by a printer or publisher to identify his work. Famous devices include the dolphin and anchor of Aldus, and, among those making a rebus, the black boy of Le Noir.

Printer's devil An apprentice to the printing trade, especially a compositor. The name perhaps derives from the excessively carelessly printed *Anatomy of the mass* (1561) in which the errors were ascribed by the printer not to his workmen, but to the intervention of the Devil.

Printer's ornament A design in either wood or metal with which a printed page is decorated, e.g. a border, headpiece or tailpiece. Also known as an ornament.

Printing Though printing from wood blocks was practised in China as early as A.D. 868, and from movable metal type about 1041-49, the peculiar nature of Chinese characters prevented much development in this art, and it is in Western Europe that the invention of printing as known to-day took place and was brought to perfection. The technical problem was basically that of casting individual characters in metal accurately and in quantity; of setting them in lines and securing them together; of adapting existing pressure machinery to the purpose of taking impressions from the metal on to a writing surface; and to find an ink suitable for use on metal.

These problems were solved in the years before 1450 by Johann Gutenberg, working at Strasburg (c. 1440-50) and later at Mainz in partnership with a financier, Fust, and a technician, Schoeffer. No conclusive evidence however, links Gutenberg with the invention save that of U. Zell writing in the Cologne Chronicle; no books bear his name as printer; and the surviving documents, either original or copies of lost original legal papers, are

both suspect as to forgery and, if genuine, equivocal as to the precise nature of Gutenberg's work. Nor are any dates firmly fixed except that of the so-called Mazarin Bible, which on internal evidence was completed as to rubrication in August, 1456. Bibliographers have, by comparative study of technical advances shown in early printing contrived to assign relative dates to numerous undated specimens which by reason of their primitive nature must precede this Bible, but there still remain the curious Costeriana, which may, however, have been printed from cast metal plates, and the Cracow Fragments, to be assigned their due place. Zell's date of 1440 for the invention is convenient, and, in the light of the progress made after 1450, superficially plausible, but it is hard to believe the first substantial product of the new art was that masterpiece, the Mazarin Bible, and a date much nearer 1430 would seem more probable.

The 15th century press is pictured in several woodcut printer's devices and appears to have differed singularly little from the hand press still surviving, save in that it was entirely wood; the use of iron for screw, etc., being due to W. J. Blacu (1571-1638). From the increasing competence of production it is deduced that much improvement was made in type casting, imposition, the justification of lines, the ability to print more than one page at a time and colour printing. Economic and social reasons caused the art of printing to spread rapidly to the main cultural centres in Italy, France, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Spain and England by 1500, but it is significant that no less than two-thirds of 15th century printing is Italian, and that most that is best in later typography and book production finds its origin in the presses of printers such as Jenson, de Spira and Aldus, all of Venice. So too should be noted the close association of the new art with classical scholarship; although it is only too likely that the great quantities of more ephemeral popular works which must have perished, would correct the apparent preponderance of such serious work. There is, however, no contesting the lofty idealism and responsibility of men such as Aldus and Froben; and they stand in striking contrast to the commercially minded men of

PRINTING

the next century. During the 16th and 17th centuries there was a steady deterioration in the standard of the product of the press which, with few honourable exceptions such as Plantin, John Day and the Estiennes, as largely concerned with ephemeral productions, and was moreover heavily handicapped by the unsettled conditions of the time. The trade failed to accumulate adequate capital for large undertakings, for example, it was essential in order to print a polyglot Bible in England in the middle 17th century to collect subscriptions from patrons to obtain Government support and to secure exemption from restrictions on the number of craftsmen and presses allowed. All this demonstrates the restrictive attitude to the press, one that was universally followed, and which only very gradually broke down.

For England the agent chosen was the Stationers Company and an extremely close monopoly was established in London under direct supervision from the Government. Provincial printing was practically extinguished save in the two Universities. If one may generalize from the evidence provided by the great printers' strike at Lyons in the 16th century, and from the much later documents of the London trade unions, conditions in the trade were miserable, with long hours, insecure employment and deplorable working conditions. The men were organized in close guilds called *Chapels* which governed actual conditions in the shops, but until the 19th century these guilds were primarily charitable in effect. By the latter part of the 18th century conditions were changing, and the substitution of machine for hand power accomplished in a century greater changes than had occurred in the previous 300 years. If the efforts of Baskerville to achieve technical perfection were isolated, and largely unregarded, there were new inventions destined to change the industry completely. As early as 1790 Nicholson had patented a cylinder press; the experiments of Stanhope in stereotype, the construction of the iron press (1800); the application of steam power by Koenig and Bauer to the hand press (1811) and later (1814) to a flat bed press with a continuously revolving cylinder for newspaper work, were all signs of the change which culminated in the

Applegarth press (1827) capable of 4,000 impressions an hour. Experiments were also proceeding with the platen press having type in a vertical position (Treadwell of Boston, 1822) and were perfected in Gordon's Franklin press of 1856. This improved rate of output gave rise to the demand for speedier composition, and various approaches were made to this problem, e.g. by Stanhope's rationally arranged compositor's case and Walter's logotypes, but the most fruitful line was that of the type composing machine. First invented by Church of Boston (Lincs.) in 1822, the commercially practicable devices were not really available until after Thorne's setting and distributing machine of 1880. In 1878 Mergenthaler had invented a 'type impression' machine, and in 1885 a slug-casting machine, the forerunner of the modern Linotype was made. In 1885 Lanston applied the Jacquard loom principle to type casting using a perforated sheet; a machine later known as the Monotype. Since that time elaborate improvements have been made; standard parts such as Intertype have become available, and much greater flexibility has been achieved in dealing with complicated copy by mechanical composition. 20th century developments appear to be along the lines of photographic composition and offset lithography for printing plates, and the large number of experimental machines in operation would appear to herald the doom of traditional printing methods. Printers still learn, their trade of hand presses, and these would seem to be the most economic for small jobs and above all, for those who appreciate the unsurpassed appearance of the old printed page.

The problem of the aesthetic standard of printing is fascinating, and one that demands much comparative study of existing work, of the various trades that combine in the production of a book, and above all, the cultural background against which the book is to be viewed. This problem is most obviously approached in the Private Press movement; a curious intrusion of the comparative amateur into a highly specialized trade. The history of publishing is studded with examples of individuals who desired especial treatment from the trade and who, if sufficiently persevering, as Ralph Viner, Egerton Brydges

or Ruskin, would even set up their own printing firms rather than submit to trade customs, but the other side, that of the amateur printer is both curious and rewarding of study. Only a brief outline can here be given of a movement that has undoubtedly profoundly influenced the standards of the trade, and reference must be made to the general literature of the subject, e.g. Tomkinson's *Select bibliography of private presses* (1928). Primarily, the private press movement is of the 19th and 20th centuries, and the connoisseurs of printing had dabbled in the art previously, e.g. Walpole at the Strawberry Hill Press, the first significant figure is that of C. H. O. Daniel who at Frome and then at Oxford, established a small press for printing family items. Not of great artistic standard, the Daniel Press will be forever celebrated for the revival of the Fell types. Of much greater importance is William Morris who first enunciated standards of book production based on comparative study of the work of the 15th century masters. Morris no doubt over elaborated, and his predilection for Gothic was counter to 20th century taste, but his inspiration not only in this country but in America and Germany was tremendous. To him perhaps more than any other is due the current instructed interest in the historical and aesthetic study of type and book production among the wider reading public. The chief successors to Morris were the Ashendene and the Doves Presses; but, as reference to Tomkinson will show, private presses were numerous up to the 1914 war, and again up to 1939. Perhaps the most notable press between the wars was the Gregynog Press of Newtown, Montgomery, whose books are as beautifully bound as they are printed. Mention should, however, be made of the Nonesuch Press which has proved that good standard printing and production may yet be commercially practicable, and which alone among the 'private' presses has survived the last war. Since 1945 the Dropmore Press has been founded by a well-known publishing firm to ensure the continuance of the hand-made book tradition. The specialist work of the university presses should receive notice, especially in view of the employment of such well-known typog-

raphers as Bruce Rogers (Cambridge) and Morison (Cambridge).

One important element that should receive mention is the research and revival of traditional types by the Monotype and the Linotype Corporations. There is no longer need for any printer to complain of the lack of availability of good quality type or of paucity of interesting faces.

For the librarian, appreciation of printing has perennial interest as being the very life blood of his profession, but he is also frequently required to commission work from the printer, and that this presents an opportunity, few will deny. It has long been established that good quality printing is relatively little dearer than shoddy work; but it is certainly desirable to know the basic routines and practices of the printer, both as affecting what he can and what he will do. There is a strong competitive element to-day in the use of office printing machinery especially of the offset lithographic variety, and the electric typewriter is a powerful challenge where small runs are concerned; and the ephemeral nature of much library printing must ensure that the cheapest method of reproduction shall be used, but it is undeniable that for the permanent items, there is no surpassing good letterpress work. A librarian who regards his forms and catalogues (of the printed kind) as indicating the standards upheld by the library will have no hesitation in seeking the close collaboration of his printer.

A sound printer can be of the greatest service both in suggesting appropriate paper, type and ink, but also in advising on layout in relation to cost. The trade is strongly conservative in ideas, but libraries seldom seek eccentricities of printing. Study of contemporary styles is valuable, and the numerous trade journals offer much help in this respect. Many printing houses also issue 'style' books which are of great help to the amateur.

R.N.L.

Printings A general term for papers used for printing as distinct from other industrial purposes.

Prison libraries Until the late 19th century prisons combined 'safe custody of the person'

PRISON LIBRARIES

with 'improvement of the mind . . . operating by seclusion, employment and religion.'¹ There was no statutory provision for libraries in prison, although the Chaplain of Maidstone had started a library in 1837 and there were others. Twenty-eight years later the law confirmed that 'No books or printed papers shall be admitted into any prison for the use of prisoners, except by permission of the Visiting Justices.'²

It was not until the passing of the Prison Act, 1877, when control and ownership of all local prisons passed to the Secretary of State, that authority came for a library to be 'provided in every prison consisting of such books as from time to time may be sanctioned by the Commissioners.'³ The method of selecting books rested with the chaplains and schoolmasters who submitted lists of books annually to the local Visiting Committees. Recommendations for purchase were then made to the Prison Commission and implemented, after the Chaplain-General had approved the 'suitability' of the selection.

Reading was one of the privileges allowed in the Progressive Stage System instituted by Sir Edmund du Cane (Chairman of the Prison Commission 1878-95). Books could be read for recreation after the third month of sentence, with the result that short sentence men, who constituted 80 per cent of the prison population, were not entitled to read fiction. The cost of all reading matter supplied to the prisons was borne by a capitation grant of 1s. 3d. based on the population on this last stage.

In 1910 Winston Churchill set up the Departmental Committee on the Supply of Books to Prisoners, which recommended that the capitation grant should be determined by the whole average prison population, and spent entirely on recreational and educational books. The Committee displayed an interest in the kind of books which should be found on the shelves, elementary trade handbooks, general fiction and 'periodicals containing information as to the principal events of the outside world and the opinions of educated men upon them.'⁴

At this time prisoners indicated their choice from the library catalogue and the books were delivered direct to the cells. If the chosen

book was unavailable often any book would be sent instead. This system continued for many years and led to much abuse. It has been criticized in books written by ex-prisoners.

Between 1924 and 1927 the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust contributed £2,750 for books for educational classes. A grant of £400 was made by the Treasury in 1926. The Educational Library is still at Wakefield Prison, and books are despatched to prisons throughout the country for use in classes or by individuals. Foreign literature and technical libraries are also at Wakefield. New catalogues to these three libraries appeared in 1950, when copies were circulated throughout the prison system.

In 1938 East Suffolk County Library loaned 200 books to Hollesley Bay Borstal and from 1943 received a capitation grant of 2s. for this service. Wartime difficulties of book supply and post-war rising prices encouraged the Prison Commission to seek the help of public libraries. Prison libraries must be considered as part of the pattern of prison reform. In that light the opportunity given to local authorities to engage in the prison library service was the most important event since the Departmental Committee of 1910. Their increasing participation demonstrates the enlightened policy of the Prison Commission. At present 47 local authorities offer service to prisons.

Book provision is still undertaken by the Commission in nearly 20 establishments. Books are purchased centrally and accessioned at Wormwood Scrubs before allocation to prisons and Borstals. Some of the larger prisons have special libraries for young prisoners and corrective trainees. In Borstals particularly, the importance of reading is recognized and has been encouraged by the formation of 'Book Clubs.'

There are five types of prison:⁵ central, regional training, for corrective training, local and 'open.' In practice one establishment may contain two or three types. This creates a problem as prisoners of different categories are kept segregated and have their own library periods.

The Prison Commission raised the grant to 5s. per head of the average prison population in 1948, and to 6s. from April 1st, 1955. This does not allow much beyond the purchase of

books⁶ although the extent of the service offered by local authorities varies from book supply only to staff on duty when the prison library is open. The principle of open-access, long desired by the Prison Commission is now universal, except in a few of its largest and most crowded prisons. Even in these, however, some categories of prisoners change their own books.

The most successful prison libraries are where the librarians responsible for the service are interested in the work and have happy relations with the prison staff. Personality and temperament are important considerations when selecting assistants for duty at the prison, as the prison librarian is primarily a reader's adviser. Usually he supervises prisoner-orderlies who discharge the books and sort them prior to examination before shelving. Many authorities prefer to use their own stationery, although the Home Office provides library cards for prisoners records.

Requests for particular books are supplied from library headquarters or passed to regional sources. Several local authorities send their printed booklists to their prison branches and individual lists are easily prepared for men who will benefit by them. Book talks and book displays are appreciated by the prisoners and are welcomed by the authorities.

¹ Select committee on prison provision. 1811.

² The prison act. 1865.

³ Local prison code. Rule 42, 1878.

⁴ Report of the departmental committee on the supply of books to prisoners. Cd. 5589, 1911.

⁵ Prison rules. 1949-52.

⁶ Birch, J. E. V. 'Books for the privileged classes' (Letter). *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1955, 57, 158.

Downton, J. A. 'Libraries in prisons.' (In Library Association (London and Home Counties and Eastern Branches). Papers read at the joint annual week-end conference, Clacton-on-Sea, 1950.

MacCormick, A. H. *The education of adult prisoners*. 1931.

Watson, R. F. 'Prison libraries.' 1951. (Library Association Pamphlet No. 7.)

Great Britain. *Report of the departmental committee on the supply of books to prisoners*. Cd. 5589, 1911.

Reports of the Commissioners of prisons and directors of convict prisons. 1936, 1939 to date.

In addition, Fox, L. W., *The English prison and Borstal system*, 1952, is recommended for background reading.

R. F. W.

Private mark A symbol, mark or legend appearing in a book, usually inside the front board or on the title-leaf, indicating ownership. Many libraries use a rubber stamp for this purpose and sometimes combine it with a process stamp in which sections are signed by the individuals responsible for the various stages of preparing a book for issue onto the shelves. Often, additional marks are placed on particular pages of every book, especially on plates.

Privately printed A book printed on a private press or, if printed on a public press, issued for private circulation and not intended for general distribution through the publishing and bookselling trade. In the latter case the book is often described as 'Printed at the author's expense' or may contain a list of the private subscribers who have financed the printing.

The catalogue entry for privately printed books will signify the fact by the addition in the imprint of the abbreviation 'priv. print.' when this is not readily apparent from the title.

Proceedings The published record of a meeting of a society or other organization, frequently accompanied by abstracts or reports of papers presented (see also *TRANSACTIONS*). (*A.L.A. Gloss.*)

Process block Metal printing surface produced with the aid of photography and a chemical action which utilizes the hardening consequent on the exposure of certain substances to light and their insolubility in water. Etching is employed to remove non-printing areas.

Process colour printing Photomechanical relief process of reproducing pictures in colour by overprinting separate half-tone plates prepared by colour filters for each of two or more colours. Called from the number of plates so used, three-, four-colour process.

PROCESS SLIP

Process slip A card or slip, sometimes a printed form, which accompanies a book through the cataloguing department. At each stage items of information are added to the slip, together with the initials of the persons inserting such information. The purpose of the process slip is to provide the cataloguer, and particularly the reviser, with as much information as is necessary for compiling all the catalogue entries and references. In some libraries the process slip records in addition the initials of staff responsible for all the processes through which the book passes, from first receipt until completion and readiness for shelving.

Also called 'Catalogue card copy,' 'Catalogue slip,' 'Cataloguer's slip,' 'Cataloguing process slip,' 'Copy slip,' 'Guide slip,' 'Routine slip' and 'Work slip.'

Process stamp A rubber stamp impression on the back of the title-page of a book to give the library history of the book and to show which assistants were responsible for the various stages of its processing (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Processing In photography and documentary reproduction, the operations of developing, fixing, washing and drying prints and films. Processing of the silver halide papers used in normal photocopying involves the development of the exposed silver halide to a silver image. Fixing converts the unexposed silver halide to soluble salts, and washing removes both the soluble salts and the fixing solution.

Programme dissertation A dissertation accompanying the 'programmes' (i.e. announcements of memorial exercises, lectures, etc.) published by a university or school, especially one in Germany, Austria, Switzerland or one of the Scandinavian countries (*A.A. Code.*).

Progressive proofs Separate colour prints for each stage of three-colour production.

Projection The method employed by a cartographer for representing on a plane the whole or a part of the earth's surface (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Prompt book The copy of a play used by a prompter, showing action of the play, cues, movement of actors, properties, costume and

scene and light plots. Also called 'prompt copy' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Proof A trial print from type after composition. Corrections are made at successive stages, e.g. galley and page proof. If required extra intermediate proofs will be provided by arrangement.

Proof before letters A proof of an engraving without any inscription, e.g. title or name of artist.

Proof reading 1. Checking the composed type by the MS. 2. Checking by the author to ensure that the printer has followed his MS.

Property (in classification) See **PRE-DICABLES**.

Pseudandry A woman author writing under a masculine pseudonym.

Pseudonymous works A work is said to be pseudonymous when the writer has concealed his identity under a false name which appears in the book as the name of the author.

The librarian and cataloguer, who must consider both the convenience of the reading public and the desirability, for ease of official reference, of assembling the writings of a single person together on the shelves (or the relevant entries in the catalogue) need to decide whether pseudonymous works shall be represented under pseudonym or real name.

In favour of entry under pseudonym in catalogues it may be said that many authors are known exclusively or more widely under pseudonym by the reading public. In some cases the author may not wish his identity to be revealed. Frequently nowadays pseudonyms are used and appear on the title-pages with no indication that they are pseudonyms; the adoption of an inflexible rule for entry under real name would therefore lead to much time-consuming bibliographic research since each name unfamiliar to the cataloguer would require proof of being a real name. Again, books written by a single author under different names may be totally dissimilar in content and style, the readers of one kind having no interest in the others and naturally searching only by the one name known.

Entry under real name in the catalogue may be justified solely from the advantages conferred by the entire literary output of an author as represented in the library appearing in one place under a constant heading (*i.e.* the legal name). By analogy, as works on Phthisis would not be entered, some under Phthisis, some under Consumption, and others under Pulmonary tuberculosis, neither should the works of a single person be so separated. It is also largely true that, posthumously, pseudonyms are forgotten, the author becoming known in literary history by his real name. Books about these authors even during their lifetime will refer to them by real name, and it is under this as subject heading that these will be catalogued, a point of significance in dictionary and name catalogues where entries for books by, and about, an author should appear together.

The solution lies in entering pseudonymous works doubly, under pseudonym and also real name, but since double entry costs additional cataloguing time and will also increase the bulk of the catalogue unduly a decision of principle has usually to be made. The principal codes of cataloguing offer varying decisions but the Anglo-American Joint Code, used by a majority of English-speaking libraries, dictates that entry under a writer's pseudonym only when the real name is not known.

Public libraries The term 'public library' has had and still has many different connotations. It is not even possible to say that a 'public library' is one which is not 'private,' or, that it is one which is available generally to the 'public' or that it is one supported substantially by public funds. Institutions have been termed 'public libraries' which have no such claim to the name.

In a memorandum on *The development of public library services* prepared by the Public Libraries Section of the International Federation of Library Associations and adopted at the International Congress of Libraries and Documentation Centres at Brussels in 1955, it is said that 'it is the purpose of public libraries to make it possible for all men, according to their needs and circumstances, to enjoy whatever benefits full access to books

and related forms of record may bring them. . . . The public library is only one of the many means of access, including libraries of other kinds and the personal possession of books. The public library should not compete with these. Co-operation between public libraries and other libraries should be developed to the maximum.' The public library 'is concerned with all material of value to the individual and the community' and it is its duty 'not only to meet existing demands but also to encourage and facilitate wider demands from more people.' The essentials of the service are noted: 'The public library must be a comprehensive, general service for the use of all sections of the community. . . . It is proper that it should be provided by the community as a whole, at the common expense of the community (with or without additional assistance from the common funds of the state). . . . It should be a "free" service in that no user should be required to pay any fee, subscription or other charge . . . in order to avail himself of its services. . . . The public library should be a local service' provided by the local authority but 'the responsible local authority should be the largest consistent with geographical and other conditions which will nevertheless attain the advantages of local control.'

The conception of a public library service is rather more than 100 years old. In the U.S.A. States laws enabling towns to establish and maintain libraries by taxation were passed in New Hampshire in 1849 and Massachusetts in 1851, though the first rate-supported free public library in the U.S.A. was set up without any specific legal basis as early as 1833. The first Public Libraries Act for England and Wales received the Royal Assent in 1850. There had been municipal 'public' libraries, however, long before that. Commencing with one erected some time between 39 and 27 B.C. there were reported to be 28 public libraries in ancient Rome. During the Middle Ages several places in Germany (*e.g.* Ulm, Magdeburg, Nürnberg, Hamburg) established town libraries and many similar institutions came into existence in the 18th and early 19th centuries in Switzerland, France, Norway and elsewhere throughout Europe. In this country the earliest such

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

institution was probably that provided in the City of London in the 15th century. Usually as a result of private benefaction a few similar libraries came into being in the 17th century (Coventry 1601, Norwich 1608, Ipswich, Leicester, etc.). Never important, they soon ceased to be effective—the sole exception being the Chetham Library established in Manchester in 1653 and still active. Many of those established elsewhere in Europe, on the contrary, became and continue as important libraries though, as a rule, they tended to become 'scientific' or scholarly libraries, often with archival functions. They were not generally (the Deichmanske Bibliotek in Oslo is one exception) forerunners of the public library as a service for the community as a whole.

The need for this latter type of service did not, of course, come into existence until the spread of literacy and education brought an increasing demand for access to books. The inter-action and relationship of the five main methods adopted in various countries would make an interesting story. There are the subscription libraries of the middle classes, the mechanics institutes and 'mercantile' libraries of the working classes, clerks and artisans, the libraries established by philanthropic movements, those of religious and political organizations and the true public library of the Anglo-American-Scandinavian pattern. The present status of public library services in any country to-day is largely a direct result of the extent to which the last pattern has succeeded in superseding one of the others. For example, where the influence of the religious library has remained strong (as in Belgium or Holland) or the 'subscription' idea lingers on (as in South Africa or South Australia) or trade unions continue the tradition of the mechanics institutes (as in Yugoslavia and the Iron Curtain countries) the genuine public library has made little and difficult progress. The same is equally true of countries where the 'scholarly' library tradition has caused the wider general service to be regarded as an inferior 'popular' provision (as in Italy, Austria, to some extent in Germany, etc.).

The foundation of the British public library service owes much to William Ewart, M.P.

for Dumfries Burghs, Joseph Brotherton, M.P. for Salford and Edward Edwards who were largely responsible for the passing of the first Public Libraries Bill. Edwards became first librarian of the first public library to be opened under the provisions of this Act—at Manchester in 1852. Norwich was the first to adopt the Act (in September, 1850) but provided no service until 1857. Brighton also began library activities in 1850 but by virtue of a private Act. Other pioneers were Winchester, Bolton, Ipswich, Oxford, Liverpool, Blackburn, Sheffield and Cambridge. The first to adopt the Act in London was the Parish of St. Margaret and St. John (Westminster).

The 1850 Act, applied only to England and Wales, permitted adoption only by towns with 10,000 or more population and limited expenditure to the product of a halfpenny rate, none of which was to be spent on books. The population limit was lowered to 5,000 and the rate limit raised to 1d. by an Act of 1855. Powers were extended to Scotland and Ireland in 1853. The 1d. rate limit remained for England and Wales until 1919 when it was abolished; in Scotland it was removed only in 1955.

Progress was very slow at first, only 48 authorities in England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland adopting the Act before 1870. Between this and 1890, however, the number increased to 215 and by the end of the century to 401. This progress was due largely to the general advance in education and social progress but also to personal enthusiasm such as that of Thomas Greenwood, a publisher, to the activities of the Library Association founded in 1877 and, above all, to private benefaction, notably that of John Passmore Edwards and Andrew Carnegie. The latter gave help to 213 towns in England and Wales, 50 in Scotland and 47 in Ireland so that when he died in 1919 there were 380 separate library buildings associated with his name.

In 1913 was founded the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust which exercised an important influence upon further development, especially by initiating county library services on an experimental basis and supporting them until the Act of 1919 first gave library powers to county councils; after that it made

substantial grants and gave invaluable guidance and encouragement.

At the present time there is only one local authority area in the whole of the U.K. which has not a rate supported public library (Mountain Ash, 28,000 pop.).

The Public Libraries Acts are and have always been 'adoptive'; that is to say that the local authority concerned has been free to decide whether or not to provide libraries and at liberty to spend as little and (since 1919) as much as they wished upon them. Therefore it is remarkable and praiseworthy that almost complete nationwide coverage should have been achieved. Only in the Scandinavian countries has this been approached. In 1955 public library service was being given by 587 independent local library authorities. Service was given from 31,249 points (*i.e.* 577 municipal central libraries and county headquarters; 1,191 full-time branches; 29,481 part-time branches, centres, etc., including school, hospital and prison libraries) and also by 158 mobile libraries.

Registered borrowers from lending libraries totalled 13,100,000 (26 per cent of the total population) and annual issues for home reading, 386,300,000. Total expenditure was £12,810,000 of which £3,180,000 was spent on books. Staff employed on public library work (excluding 'manual' workers) totalled 12,390.

The various departments, specialized activities, methods, etc., are the subject of separate articles in the Encyclopaedia but certain generalities must be mentioned in this 'general' article. Firstly, the public libraries of Great Britain are financed entirely from local rates (excepting for revenue from fines, etc., and very occasionally income from small gifts). Excepting that the county libraries in Scotland earn grants as part of the education service there is no assistance whatever from the central government. Secondly, they are managed in all (but two or three) of the municipalities by Library Committees appointed by the local authority and in the counties by sub-committees of the Education Committee. Thirdly, their scope and ideals conform to the criteria set out in the Memorandum quoted at the beginning—they offer a 'general' representative stock placed freely at

the disposal of all people; they are genuinely free from any propagandist or partisan influences and so far as their resources permit offer the public a full, free opportunity of access to books of all kinds.

One would not, however, suggest that their resources invariably permit this opportunity to be adequate and genuinely effective. Major limitations have yet to be overcome. Firstly, standards of service (determined according to the interest and understanding of each local authority and influenced or not by the ability and determination of the librarian) vary seriously, in all types and sizes of library systems. This is indicated by varying standards of expenditure per head of population. For example, the national median expenditure per head of population was 55.6d. but whereas the highest (excluding central London authorities where exceptional circumstances prevail) was 179.6d. the lowest was 5.9d. Book expenditure per head of population varied similarly, with a median of 13.8d. and a highest of 64.4d. and a lowest of 0.5d.

Secondly, the true purposes and values of public libraries have changed from those of the pioneer as educational, social and economic conditions have improved and other means for recreation have come into being. Thus, to-day the public library has wide and varied responsibilities for promoting individual development, commerce and technical progress and social and cultural advancement which demand both access to extensive, well-maintained bookstocks and the services of expert and specialized staffs. It is impossible for these to be provided by independent library systems too small to afford the necessary minimum expenditure. There were in 1955 in England and Wales 218 authorities serving less than 40,000 (169 of these less than 30,000, 120 less than 20,000 and 50 under 10,000).

It has become increasingly necessary to incorporate these in larger units (*e.g.* into county library systems). A memorandum suggesting that all authorities unable reasonably to expend a minimum of £15,000 per annum (*i.e.* most of those with populations below about 45,000) should be requested to form part of large systems, though rejected by those voting at the Annual General Meeting

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

of the Library Association in 1955, was adopted by a large majority after a postal ballot.

Nevertheless the British public library service is one of the best in the world and is steadily improving. The pattern of library service in the United States is basically similar to that in the United Kingdom though the governmental unit and the legal basis varies considerably from state to state. The ideals and the types of service and methods closely resemble our own; the need for the closer integration of small independent services or their amalgamation to form larger systems with greater resources is an even greater problem; and at the present time over one-quarter of the population still lack any kind of library service. Nevertheless the library of the U.S. has done more probably than of any other nation to discover, establish and make widely known the true objectives and possibilities of the service.

In the Scandinavian countries we find the ideals of Anglo-American librarianship, adapted to national conditions, well implemented. In Denmark, Norway and Sweden virtual nationwide coverage has been achieved. Library provision remains the responsibility of local authorities, many of them very small, but state aid, wisely dispensed by state library departments has welded the town and the country into a well co-ordinated system. County or central libraries have been established which not only give help and advice to the smaller libraries but provide them with wider bookstocks and meet the needs of individual readers. The next best public library service in the world is probably that of New Zealand. Here the large cities have excellent provision, similar to that of the best comparable cities in this country, and a National Library Service, maintained by the central government, is both giving assistance to small libraries, not unsimilar to that afforded by the headquarters of a British county library to its branches and centres, and stimulating the gradual transition into genuine public libraries of many of the old established subscription libraries to be found throughout the country. A similar process is in being in the States of Australia where active, well-planned state library departments are, in their different

ways, giving aid with grants and services and encouraging both the establishment of new public libraries and the conversion of one-time subscription libraries. In Canada service is very unequal as it is in South Africa where the subscription system is still too firmly entrusted and where there are still too many unserved regions—and unserved classes and races. Valuable experiments are to be found in the West Indies and in the West and East African Colonies. To return to Europe: in Holland and Belgium there are a few good modern municipal libraries affording a striking contrast to the prevalent inadequate, ill-supported and over small institutions provided by racial and religious groups. In France there are generally few municipal libraries provided on modern lines and many more or less moribund town libraries operating in accordance with the ideas of a century ago; in a small minority of the departments rural services have been started since the war. There are a few but promising examples of modern provision in Italy. In Germany the pattern of development is fluid with, however, a marked trend towards the ideals of the Anglo-Scandinavian public library service. Elsewhere in the world—in Turkey, Israel, Indonesia, India, South America, though little has yet been achieved the movement is on the march. In this vital work of promoting world-wide public library facilities both as a means of securing fundamental education and of ameliorating backward conditions, social and economic, and of gradually creating decent standards of living and intellectual opportunity and freedom, UNESCO is playing a great part and needs the fullest support of all those who realize how essential good public libraries are in the spreading and consolidation of genuine civilization. Without public libraries there can be no true democracy, no real freedom of mind or of body. Probably one of the most striking and encouraging features in this post-war world has been the increasing extent to which this fact is securing recognition.

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L.M.C.C.

Purposes. In the second are the functional committees like Housing, Baths, Cemeteries, Highways, Libraries, Parks, etc.

The appointment, powers, constitution and duties of committees is provided for in the relevant Acts of Parliament relating to the individual country. Procedure follows a more or less set pattern but there is considerable difference in the legislation of one country and another, and moreover, between the powers and duties of committees in one administrative area and another.

The committee responsible for libraries is controlled largely in the same way as any other local authority committee. Its appointment, constitution and powers, may depend upon the provisions of Local Government Acts or the Public Libraries Acts and where powers must be delegated to the Education Committee, upon the Education Acts. A number of miscellaneous Acts also have application. In particular, there are notable differences between the legislation of England and Wales and that of Scotland and between that of municipal and county systems. Reference must be made to the appropriate Acts and other authorities for exact details. The broad outlines are as follows:

Appointment

England and Wales All committees of boroughs, urban districts and parishes are now appointed and empowered in accordance with the provisions of the Local Government Act, 1933. The election of such committees though customary is entirely optional. Metropolitan boroughs receive sanction to appoint committees from the London Government Act, 1939, and the City of London from the Public Libraries Act, 1892. The 1919 Public Libraries Act enabled county councils to establish library services and placed their control under the Education Committee. This same Act made the same provisions for any new county borough library service which might be created and gave existing county borough library authorities who are empowered to appoint committees by the Local Government Act, 1933, the option to hand over their powers to the Education Committee—an option which met with little response.

Public libraries committee In the British system of local government, all policies are originally discussed and initiated at committee level and the general direction of the administration of a local government authority is made the responsibility, with or without further approval, of a number of committees. Such committees are established by the authority itself from among its elected members and in some cases non-council members may be co-opted. The standing committees divide broadly into two categories:

(a) Those which are charged with certain responsibilities common to all departments—often referred to as 'pervasive committees.'

(b) Departmental committees responsible for directing one particular department of the council's work.

In the first category are such committees as Finance, Establishment, and possibly, General

PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMITTEE

Scotland The Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1887, provides that the council of a burgh must annually appoint a Libraries Committee and goes on to reserve special duties which must be vested in this committee. At the same time other Acts reserve certain functions to the authority itself. In the counties an Education Committee (which must be appointed, Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1947), exercises the library powers bestowed by the Education (Scotland) Act, 1946, and where the county council operates the library service of the landward parishes, these are supervised by the Education Committee or by a Libraries Committee as specified in the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1947.

Northern Ireland In urban districts, boroughs and towns, Libraries Committees may be set up and the general management, regulation, and control vested in them (Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1855). In the counties a library committee must be set up but its recommendations must be submitted to the county council for approval (Public Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924).

Composition

England and Wales The Local Government Act, 1933, lays down no limit to the size of committees. It permits co-option (see below) but not more than one-third of a committee must consist of co-opted members. The London Government Act, 1939, permits co-option to the committees of Metropolitan Borough Committees but does not specify numbers. In the county library authorities and county boroughs where library powers are referred to the Education Committee, the Education Act, 1944, provides that the majority of its members must be from the county council and the committee must include persons experienced in education. Where such a committee delegates any or all of its powers to a Libraries Subcommittee, this committee shall consist either wholly or partly of members of the Education Committee (Public Libraries Act, 1919).

Scotland The Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1887, states that the Libraries Committee of a burgh must consist of 10 and not more than 20 members, half to be from the local authority and half from householders.

In counties the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1947, prescribes among other things, that the Education Committee must contain at least a majority of council members and must include persons experienced in education and acquainted with the schools' needs. There are other provisions affecting the committees of parish libraries administered by the county.

Northern Ireland In urban districts numbers of the Libraries Committee are not specified but part of the committee may consist of non-authority members (Public Libraries (Ireland) Amendment Act, 1877). The composition of the county Libraries Committee is carefully specified in the Public Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924, and permits co-option.

Co-option The appointment of non-authority members to a committee in accordance with the relative legislation (see Composition). Such members are invited to serve by virtue of special interests in education, libraries or books. They take a full part in the proceedings of the committee but have no place in the council meeting.

Delegation of powers The handing over of definite powers to a committee by the local authority, or from a committee to a sub-committee. The term figures largely in the local government legislation of England and Wales which empowers an authority to delegate any or all of its powers to a committee if it so wishes, except those of borrowing money or levying a rate. In actual practice although most authorities elect committees the degree of delegation differs widely. If a committee is set up without actual delegated powers it is called a *recommending* committee; if it has powers delegated to it, then, in respect of these it is *executive*, or, if action within the limit of these executive powers has to be reported to the next meeting of the authority, it is called *reporting*. In practice the duties and powers of a committee are set out in the authority's 'Standing Orders.' Whatever the degree of delegation it must be borne in mind that the council itself will still retain a large measure of control over the affairs of other committees through the Finance Committee and Establishment Committee which ultimately control expenditure and staff in

all departments. Any new library development such as a branch library or a project needing extra staff will also almost certainly require the council's approval. Thus it will be seen that a Libraries Committee may be entirely 'recommending,' or may be 'executive' to a greater or lesser extent so far as the less important matters are concerned, and only 'recommending' for major projects.

Procedure Business is presented to the Libraries Committee in the form of an agenda usually prepared by the Town Clerk in conjunction with the librarian and other chief officers. Decisions will be minuted in the official minutes of the Libraries Committee, kept by the Town Clerk, and relevant matter will either be reported to the next meeting of the council or submitted to it in the form of recommendations. Decisions on such recommendations as require the council's approval will finally appear in its minutes.

Standing orders The agreed procedure for the conduct of the council's business, rules of debate, appointment and powers of committees and financial regulations, are normally printed in booklet form. Such regulations are termed 'Standing Orders.'

Subcommittees Larger library authorities sometimes set up subcommittees for such purposes as book-selection (frequently left to the librarian), inspection of buildings, accounts and periodical selection. Such recommendations as they may make usually go to the Libraries Committee for approval.

In county libraries in England and Wales the Libraries Committee is itself a subcommittee of the Education Committee, or possibly, the Further Education Subcommittee. Where branch libraries operate in the counties there may also be a local committee which is in fact a subcommittee of the Libraries Subcommittee. Such committees have no powers by right but only such as the county authority lays down. They serve to foster local interest and act as an advisory body to the county committee to whom all decisions must be submitted in the form of recommendations.

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See also relevant Acts of Parliament.

E.V.C.

Public library law *The public libraries acts* Public libraries in England and Wales are provided and maintained under the provisions of the Public Libraries Acts, 1892-1919, namely, the Public Libraries Act, 1892 (the principal Act), the Public Libraries (Amendment) Act, 1893, the Public Libraries Act, 1901 and the Public Libraries Act, 1919. Many other statutes affect public libraries in some degree, notably those relating to public health, local government and education. The majority of public libraries are established under the Acts but there are some which have been provided under the authority of local Acts of Parliament and are outside the scope of this title.

The Acts are adoptive and apply only to those localities in which they have been adopted. In parishes the parish meeting, after notice, has the exclusive power of adoption or a poll may be demanded. In county boroughs, boroughs and urban districts adoption is by resolution of the council. In counties the county council has power by resolution, specifying the area to which the resolution extends, to adopt the Acts for the whole or any part of the county but excluding any part which is already a library area. In London the Acts have been adopted in the City and in all of the Metropolitan boroughs.

Where a resolution of adoption is passed by a county council the power of adoption by any other authority in the specified area ceases. To exclude a particular district from a county resolution, expenses under the Acts must have

PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW

been incurred within the last preceding financial year. Notice of adoption must be forwarded by the council to the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Minister of Education.

AUTHORITIES, RELINQUISHMENT OF POWERS, COMBINATION

Library authorities

The library authority in parishes is the parish council or, if there is no council, library commissioners appointed by the parish meeting; in boroughs and urban districts, the borough or urban district council; in county boroughs, the county borough council; in counties, the county council; in metropolitan boroughs, the metropolitan borough council and in the City of London, the Common Council. The library authority in areas included in a county resolution of adoption is the county council.

Relinquishment of powers

A library authority, not being a county borough, may, with the approval of the Minister of Education, relinquish its powers and duties under the Acts to the county council.

A county council by which a resolution of adoption has been passed, may apply to the Minister for an order rescinding the resolution in so far as it relates to any particular district for which the county is the library authority. Upon the making of such an order the district concerned is, from then on, a separate library district. No provision exists enabling an application to be made by an authority other than the county council. Upon any transfer of powers and duties satisfactory arrangements must be made regarding transfer of assets and liabilities.

Combination

Two or more neighbouring parishes may agree to combine for the purpose of executing the Acts and the appointment of a joint committee. In parishes not having parish councils, the combining authorities appoint a joint body of library commissioners. A parish adjoining a library district may be annexed to that district for the purposes of the Acts and it may then utilize the facilities provided by that

district without the necessity of combination. The library authorities of two or more neighbouring urban districts may also agree to combine for any period for executing the Acts. Neighbouring library authorities may also agree to 'share' the cost, etc., of facilities provided in one of the districts. Any library authority may enter into a similar agreement with the governing body of any library established or maintained out of charity funds controlled by the Minister of Education.

Any agreement between authorities must include provisions regarding adjustment of interests on the termination of such an agreement.

PROVISION, EQUIPMENT, MAINTENANCE AND MANAGEMENT

Provision of services and maintenance

Public library authorities may provide and maintain libraries, museums and art galleries and for that purpose may purchase and hire land and erect, take down, rebuild, alter, repair and extend buildings and may provide the requisite furniture and fittings. If an authority has provided one or two of these services and wishes to establish a third it may do so without taking further proceedings with respect to adoption—that is to say if an authority has provided a library service and wishes to establish a museum or art gallery or both it may do so forthwith.

A library authority may provide books, newspapers, maps and specimens of art and science and may effect repairs and binding. The Acts do not confer specific authority to provide music scores, gramophones and records, cinematograph projectors and other items frequently found in the public library. In some instances authority has been secured by means of a local Act of Parliament to provide projectors, pianos, stage fittings, etc. The cost of purchase of music scores and gramophone records is usually met from library funds and such expenditure is normally approved by the District Auditor. The purchase of antiquities, curios, etc., for museums is obviously covered by the authority to provide 'specimens for art and science.' Many authorities have established 'art' or 'picture'

funds under the provisions of local Acts. Annual contributions to, and total accumulations in such funds are normally restricted to specified sums.

A local authority may accept, hold and administer any gift of real or personal property for the benefit of the inhabitants of the district and may execute works, including maintenance or improvement, incidental to or consequential on the acceptance of the gift. Expenditure thus incurred may be met from the rates.

Wide general powers are granted to local education authorities under the Education Act, 1944, and to certain local authorities under the Local Government Act, 1948. These powers are sometimes invoked to permit 'extra-mural' activities in connection or conjunction with library powers, e.g. the provision of lectures by authorities not having powers under local Acts. The former Act requires every local education authority to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education shall be available to meet the needs of the population (Section 7). The latter Act provides that certain local authorities may do, or arrange for the doing of, or contribute towards the expenses of the doing of, anything necessary or expedient for, among other matters, the provision of an entertainment of any nature and for the provision of a theatre or concert hall (Section 132).

As to the provision of lectures as part of the library service see LECTURES.

Committees and staff

The provisions relating to committees in the principal Act were repealed and replaced (except in the City of London) by the Local Government Act, 1933, under which a local authority may appoint a committee for any general or special purpose as in its opinion would be better regulated and managed by means of a committee. (See further under PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMITTEE.)

Under the Local Government Act, 1933, and the London Government Act, 1939, a local authority may appoint such officers as it may think necessary for the efficient discharge of the authority's functions and may pay such

reasonable remuneration as it may determine. An officer holds office during the pleasure of the council. A local authority, other than a parish council, may require any of its officers to give, or itself take, such security for the faithful execution of his office and for his duly accounting for all money and property entrusted to him. A library authority being a parish council, Library Commissioners or the City of London retains its powers under the Public Libraries Acts to appoint salaried officers and servants and to dismiss them.

Admission and use

No charge may be made for admission to a library or museum provided under the Acts. In the case of a lending library no charge may be made for its use by the inhabitants of the district, but a library authority may, however, grant the use of a lending library to persons not being inhabitants either gratuitously or for payment. A charge is frequently made for the reservation of books or for the issue of a borrower's ticket but, in view of the categorical provision in the principal Act that no charge shall be made for the use of a lending library by inhabitants of the district, such charges seem clearly to be unauthorized. By an agreed system of interavailability of tickets between libraries many library authorities grant admission to persons who are not residents of the district.

A charge may be made for admission to a museum provided and still maintained under the Museums and Gymnasiums Act, 1891, but such a museum must be open free on certain days.

The Acts are silent on the point regarding admission to an art gallery provided under them and it must be assumed that the imposition of a charge is at the discretion of the authority.

Byelaws may be made requiring a guarantee or security against loss or injury from any person using a library, museum or art gallery provided under the Acts.

The Sunday opening of museums and picture galleries is permitted under the Sunday Observance Act, 1932, which also exempts from penalty participation, etc., in a lecture or debate taking place on a Sunday.

PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW

LANDS AND BUILDINGS

Acquisition

A library authority may purchase and hire land and erect, take down, rebuild, alter, repair and extend buildings. For the purpose of the purchase of land by agreement the provisions of the Lands Clauses Acts are deemed to be incorporated in the Public Libraries Acts.

Compulsory purchase

A library authority being the council of a county or county borough or a Metropolitan borough may be authorized by the Minister of Education to purchase land compulsorily for the purposes of the Acts. Procedure for such purchase is in accordance with the provisions of the Acquisition of Land (Authorization Procedure) Act, 1946.

Appropriation

An urban district or metropolitan borough may, with the sanction of the Minister of Housing and Local Government, appropriate for the purposes of the Acts any land already vested in the local authority.

Sale, exchange and letting

A library authority may, with the sanction of the Minister of Education, sell or exchange land vested in it for the purposes of the Acts. Any money arising from a sale or received by way of equality of exchange must be applied in or towards the purchase of land better adapted for those purposes or may be used for any purpose for which capital money may be applied. Buildings, or parts of buildings, and land vested in a library authority and not required for the purposes of the Acts may also be let; rents and profits arising therefrom must be used for those purposes.

Crown lands

Crown land of not more than one acre in extent may be granted or leased by the Commissioners of Crown Lands for the site, or the extension of any existing site, of a public library, museum or other public building.

Gifts

Any person holding land for ecclesiastical, parochial or charitable purposes may grant or convey by way of gift, sale or exchange for any purpose under the Acts any quantity of such land but not exceeding in any one case

one acre. A conveyance of this nature is subject to certain consents set out in the Act of 1892 (Section 13). Gifts of real property may also be accepted under the provisions of the Local Government Act, 1933, and the London Government Act, 1939.

Vesting of property

All land appropriated, purchased or rented and all other real and personal property presented or acquired for any library, museum or art gallery is vested in the library authority.

Unauthorized user

As a result of the case of the Attorney General *v.* Westminster City Council (L.R. [1924] 1 Ch. 437), premises provided and maintained under the Acts for the purposes of a public library may not be used by the local authority for any other purpose. The case is discussed at some length in the present writer's *Law relating to public libraries*, 2nd ed., 1947.

FINANCE

Library expenses

The rate limitation was abolished in 1919. A library authority may, however, resolve that the rate to be levied for the purposes of the Acts in any one financial year shall not exceed such a sum in the pound as may be specified. Such a resolution may not be rescinded for 12 months. There is no separate library rate.

In parishes (being separate library authorities) the rate is levied as an additional item of the general rate, in boroughs, metropolitan boroughs and urban districts expenses are met out of the general rate fund and in counties out of the county fund. A county council may, after consultation and notice, charge expenses incurred under the Acts on parishes, including parishes within a borough or urban district, which in their opinion are served by any of the facilities provided or maintained under the Acts. Expenses incurred by combined authorities are met in agreed proportions out of each authority's general rate fund.

Accounts and audit

Separate accounts must be kept of receipts and expenditure under the Acts of every library authority. With the exception of municipal boroughs the accounts of all

library authorities are subject to audit by District Auditors. In municipal boroughs accounts are audited by borough auditors (two elected by the local government electors and one appointed by the Mayor). The council, however, may resolve to adopt the system of district audit or professional audit.

Borrowing

Loans are now raised in accordance with the provisions of the Local Government Act, 1933, and the London Government Act, 1939, under which all library authorities may, with the approval of the Minister of Housing and Local Government, borrow money for the purposes of the Public Libraries Acts on the security of the Council's revenue. Borrowing by parishes (being separate library authorities) requires the consent of the county council. Borrowing by library commissioners in parishes (not having a parish council) requires the consent of the parish meeting. A county council may also borrow money for the purpose of making loans to parishes. A local authority may, without consent, borrow by way of temporary loan or bank overdraft for certain purposes and may also reborrow for the purposes of paying off a previous loan.

Loans raised for library purposes are normally to be repaid within the following periods—land, 60 years; buildings, 30 years; furniture, 15 years; books, 7 years.

See also ART GALLERIES; BYELAWS AND REGULATIONS; COPYRIGHT; 'FINES'; INFECTION; LECTURES; LIBELLOUS PUBLICATIONS; MUSEUMS; OBSCENITY; OFFENCES; PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMITTEE; RATES AND TAXES.

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Local government law and administration in England and Wales, 14 vols. 1934-41, and annual continuations to date. (Titles: *Art galleries; Librarian; Libraries; Library committee; Museums*.)

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A.R.H.

Publication date 1. The year in which a book is published, generally the date given at the bottom of the title-page, in distinction from copyright and other dates. Also known as 'date of publication.' 2. The day of the month or week on which a periodical is issued. Also known as 'publication day.' 3. The month and day when a new book is placed on sale by a publisher, generally announced in advance. Also known as 'publication day' or 'date of publication' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Publisher The person, firm or corporate body undertaking the responsibility for the issue of a book or other printed matter to the public. The 19th century saw the emergence of publishing as a separate trade from printing and bookselling, and nowadays the publisher undertakes financial responsibility for the printing of the manuscript, often by a separate printer, and arranges distribution of copies for sale through the bookselling trade. Previously, publisher and printer were invariably the same, and earlier still the printer was also publisher and bookseller.

Publishers' Association Membership of the Publishers' Association, which was founded in 1896, is open to any publisher in the United Kingdom whose business or an appreciable part of whose business is the publication of books. The Association affords book publishers the means of dealing collectively with the many problems that face them which are not otherwise susceptible of resolution. It regulates conditions of employment within the trade and supplies its members with information and advice on all manner of technical, legal and economic aspects of publishing. The Association also represents publishers *vis-à-vis* the Government, local authorities, public and trade bodies.

The original object of the Association was to maintain the prices of net books and while this remains one of its activities, the Association is now very largely engaged in assisting its members in one way or another to secure an ever greater and more efficient distribution of their books. To this end the Association maintains a large and successful Export Research Department (designed to assist publishers to maintain and expand their considerable exports) and a Home Market

PUBLISHER'S ASSOCIATION

Research Department. Both these departments prepare statistical analysis of publishers' sales and markets and both issue co-operative sales propaganda material and initiate and encourage co-operative book exhibitions. A credit enquiry service, mainly applying overseas, is available for members.

The Association is governed by an elected council consisting of three officers and 12 other members. This body deals with all questions of general concern to publishers. But the membership of the Association is also divided into sections or groups, e.g. Education, Fiction, Juvenile, Religious, Medical, etc., each group dealing—within the general framework of the Association—with the surprisingly numerous specialized problems of its members.

Contact is maintained with publishers overseas not only by direct relations with overseas publishers' associations, but also through the Association's membership of the International Publishers Congress.

During the 1939-45 War, the Association was the Government's principal channel of communication with the book publishing trade, and one of its principal sources of advice about the trade. The Association in the emergencies following the war has retained these important functions and, in consequence, it is true to say that the Association has fully established—and justified—its authority as the representative body for the book publishing trade.

Though it is true that there are a number of publishers of books not in membership of the Association, all the well-known book publishing houses are members and, indeed, statistics show that the turnover of the members of the Association represents not less than 90 per cent of the total turnover of all book publishers in the United Kingdom.

A modern development in the services of the Association to its members is represented by its extensive classified addressing service covering not only all home booksellers, but also overseas booksellers, and others known to be interested in British books. The department of the Association responsible for this work can also actually issue members' advertising material, and even, if necessary, reproduce much of it for them.

The Association has important links with the other trade and professional bodies concerned with the production and distribution of books, notably with the Booksellers' Association, Society of Authors, Master Printers Federation and National Book League.

The Association's offices are situated at 19 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1, in a district which is now one of the principal London publishing centres.

F.D.S.

Publisher's binding The binding of a book as it is issued by its publisher.

Publisher's cover The book cover (or case) of an edition binding.

Publisher's series A number of books, not necessarily related in subject or treatment, issued by a publisher in uniform style and usually with a common series title, as *Everyman's library*. Sometimes known as 'Trade series' or, where the volumes are reprints of older works, 'Reprint series.'

Pull An alternative term for a proof.

Pulling Reducing a bound book to its original folded and gathered state.

Pulp The raw material of paper, either rag, wood or esparto, when broken down into its cellulose fibres.

Pulp magazine A 20th century type of cheap magazine printed on newsprint and devoted to stories of adventure, mystery and love. Also known as 'pulp-paper magazine,' 'pulp sheet' and 'wood-pulp magazine' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Punched cards Essentially a method of indexing whereby rapid selection may be made of those items in an indexed collection of information that possess certain indexable features in common, without recourse to using an indexing unit for each feature, but employing sorting mechanisms based on cards with portions punched out in positions related to the features being indexed. The methods available fall mainly into those in which the cards used are either (a) edge- or marginal-punched, or (b) 'body'-punched.

The cards for use in method (a) are available in a number of different sizes, the suitable selection of which depends on the variety of information to be indexed and the amount of information to be included on the card concerning any particular item that is being indexed, e.g. bibliographical details if the item is an article in a periodical. The cards, as manufactured, have each a row (or rows in the more complicated types) of numbered holes round the periphery and one corner removed. To each numbered hole is allotted (in the simplest form of use) a single indexable feature out of those likely to be required in the field that the total index has to cover, e.g. hole numbered 3 might (in each card) be allotted 'England' should it be required to index by name of country. It is necessary to maintain either a 'master' card or a plan on which is indicated the feature allotted to each hole.

In indexing, one card is used for each item, and at the hole for each feature that is to be indexed concerning that item the portion of card between the hole and the periphery is punched out, leaving a V-shaped gap. To the body of the card may be added defining information about the item, e.g. an abstract, with bibliographical reference, of an article in a periodical.

Retrieval is carried out by assembling the cards into a pack so that their cut-off corners are in alignment, inserting a rod through all the cards at the hole relevant to the feature on which information is being sought, and shaking the cards manually or mechanically, when cards bearing references to items of interest should drop off the rod.

The coding capacity of any card may be considerably increased above the one feature/hole ratio by using certain numerical codes based on combinations of holes, by using cards with two or more rows of holes and so on.

In method (b) the sorting of cards is usually carried out by machine, and there are, therefore, limitations on the sizes of card that may be used and a considerable degree of uniformity is necessary. The cards are normally provided printed in such a way that the main body of the card is divided into a number of columns, each numbered vertically from 0-9, thus enabling a large number of positions on

the card to be 'pin-pointed.' For the purposes of indexing (in its simplest form), to each of these positions is allotted one feature from those likely to be required in the field that has to be covered by the whole index. One card is used for each item and a neat hole is punched out at the relevant position of each feature that is to be indexed concerning the item. There is usually space somewhere on the card for brief defining information about the item, but the fact that holes may be punched out over the body of the card usually precludes the publication of very much detail, e.g. an abstract of an article in a periodical.

Retrieval is carried out by setting a specially designed sorting machine to pick out those cards with a hole, or holes, punched out in the positions relevant to the features in which the enquirer is interested. Many more highly developed modifications of such systems exist, including the Bush Rapid Selector and its more recent forms where the material sorted is no longer punched cards but microfilm. Each 'frame' bears not only a coded pattern of opaque and transparent squares relevant to the feature indexed but also a photograph of the associated piece of information, a copy of which can automatically be supplied when the machine is set to register all items bearing a certain pattern in the 'code' portion of the 'frame.'

Library uses

These have included subject indexing; recording of loans, serials and orders; maintenance of stock and accession records.

Casey, R. S. and Perry, J. W. *Punched cards: their application to science and industry*. New York, 1951. (Includes 'Bibliography on uses of punched cards'.)

Leyland, E. 'Mechanized book issuing.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1950, 52, 112-15.

McGaw, H. F. *Marginal punched cards in college and research libraries*. Washington, 1952.

H.M. Treasury (Organization and Methods Division). *Creating the punched card*. 1953. D.V.A.

Punched cards charging Some American libraries use punched cards for recording loans. The I.B.M. (International Business Machine) Circulation control uses one

PUNCHED CARDS CHARGING

pre-punched, pre-numbered transaction (date-due) card and a book slip signed by the borrower. An experimental system using two pre-punched book cards with Powers-Samas equipment has been tested in this country. A method has also been devised for using Keysort or notched cards without expensive machines.

The filed record is usually on a single card for each loan and the cards are sent to a central office in a library system. Sorting of cards, discharging and the despatch of overdue notices are all dealt with centrally and the routine work at branches or sub-departments is reduced to a minimum.

Casey, R. S. *Punched cards: their application to science and industry*. New York, 1951.

Duer, M. D. and Lewis, C. S. 'How we use I.B.M.' *Libr. J.*, 1953, **78**, 1,288-9.

Klausner, M. 'I.B.M. circulation control.' *Libr. J.*, 1952, **77**, 2,165-8.

Leyland, E. 'Mechanized book issuing.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1950, **52**, 112-15.

Orton, F. E. 'Let's look at paper work.' *Libr. J.*, 1950, **75**, 368, 384-7.

Pure bibliography The type of bibliography which treats of the value of the contents of books, including textual criticism (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Pure notation See CLASSIFICATION.

Pye See PIE.

Q

Quad mark See **COLLATING MARK**.

Quadrats or quads Pieces of blank metal less than type height used to fill spaces and short lines in a page of type. Six sizes are supplied with each fount, all fractions of an em, *viz.* (i) em quad, the body; (ii) en quad, $\frac{1}{2}$ body; (iii) thick space, $\frac{1}{3}$ body; (iv) middle space, $\frac{1}{4}$ body; (v) thin space, $\frac{1}{8}$ body; (vi) hair space, $\frac{1}{16}$ body.

Qualification The practice, in cataloguing, of adding to a subject heading explanatory words indicating the sense in which the subject heading is used, such words being enclosed in parentheses. The chief use of qualification is in distinguishing homonyms, *e.g.*

- Composition (Art)
- Composition (Law)
- Composition (Music).

Quarter binding A style of binding in which the spine of the book and a small proportion of its sides are covered with a material different from that used on the remainder of its sides.

Quarter leather A quarter binding in which leather is used for the back.

Quarternions Gatherings of four sheets.

Quarto A book size formed by folding the sheet of paper twice. Abbreviated as 4to or 4^o.

Quinternion A gathering of five sheets folded once, *i.e.* 10 leaves.

Quire 1. One-twentieth of a ream; usually 24 sheets of paper. 2. A gathering of leaves, originally any number, but also restricted to the book foldings of folio, quarto, octavo, etc. 3. To quire: to fold two or more sheets together in the centre so that they may be within each other.

Quoins Wooden or metal wedges hammered in between the chase and the type to make the latter firm for printing. Modern printers use metal adjustable quoins which give pressure by turning a key.

Quotes (' ') The inverted commas placed at the beginning and end of quotations.

R

Rack 1. A framework or stand for display purposes. 2. A form of open shelving especially useful for large flat items.

Radiating stacks Island stacks arranged to converge upon an imaginary point in the staff enclosure, thus enabling all readers on both sides of every stack to be visible from the enclosure.

Rag paper Paper made entirely or in part from cotton or linen rags. Many fine writing-book papers are sold as 100 per cent rag, or as having a rag content of 25 per cent, 50 per cent or 75 per cent. Generally held to be of the highest permanence, in that the oldest papers extant (from 2nd century A.D.) are of rag, and chemical or mechanical wood furnishes have proved perishable within 50 years.

Raised bands The raising on the spine of the leather cover over the sewing cords in flexibly sewn books ('extra' style only).

Dummy or false bands are imitation raised bands on the spine of a book not flexibly sewn.

Ramean tree See BIFURCATE CLASSIFICATION.

Ramie One of the finest materials for paper-making, used normally only for bank-notes. A certain amount of textile waste is used for this paper.

Ranganathan, Shiyali Ramamrita (classification) See COLON CLASSIFICATION.

Ratdolt, Erhardt (d. c. 1528?). A printer from Augsburg who migrated to Venice where he began to print in 1476. His books are characterized by the use of a decorated title-page, and by the printing of initial letters rather than by rubrication. In the *Sphaera Mundi* (1485) for the first time several colours are printed on one page.

Rates and taxes Buildings provided and maintained by public library authorities are exempt from taxation under the Income Tax

Acts but they are not exempt from the payment of local rates.

A public library if used solely as a free library is entitled to the relief granted under Schedule A of the Income Tax Act, 1952, to a literary and scientific institution. If it is used mainly as a free library but comprises a hall or other rooms used for lectures, plays or other activities for or in connection with the advancement of art, education, etc., it is also entitled to the exemption granted under the Finance Act, 1921, from tax under both Schedule A and Schedule D upon any profits arising from the use of the building for such purposes. Where part of a building is occupied by a servant of the authority that part, subject to certain exceptions, remains liable to tax.

If a charge is made for the use of a library by non-inhabitants of the district then relief from tax might be questioned.

(See *Liverpool Corp. v. West Derby Union* (1905) 69 J.P. 277; *Manchester Corp. v. McAdam* [1896] A.C. 500.)

'Local Authority Agreed Rules between the Inland Revenue and the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1949, 51, 281.

Hewitt, A. R. *Summary of public library law*. 3rd ed. (rev.), 1955.

A. R. H.

Reader 1. A person who uses library material. 2. A member of a special library staff who scans current material to select articles, etc., pertinent to the work of individuals and departments of the organization to be brought to their attention. In a newspaper library, a member of the library staff who scans the several editions of the newspaper and marks the articles for clipping and filing. 3. One who reads manuscripts for a publisher or literary agent and reports on the possibility or advisability of publishing them. Also 'publisher's reader.' 4. One who is employed by a printer to read proofs and make sure that

corrections have been properly made (*A.L.A. Gloss., etc.*).

Reader's set Proofs on which corrections are to be made.

Reading list A list of books recommended for reading on a particular subject, often selected to fit the needs of a particular class of reader and possibly offering particulars of the purpose, scope and special features of each book. The arrangement of such lists is frequently alphabetical but may be chronological or in some order best suited to the study of the subject or for the class of reader.

Ream 1. A term denoting a number of sheets of paper ranging from 480 to 516. 2. Theoretically 480 sheets, equal to 20 quires, ranging from 472 to 520.

Reback To put a new back on a volume without rebinding.

Rebinding The thorough rehabilitation of a worn book; the minimum of reconstruction generally being resewing and putting on a new cover and lettering.

Recasing 1. The replacing (resetting) of the cover on a volume that has come out of its cover or has loosened in the cover.

Recovering The process of making a new cover and attaching it to a volume.

Recto The right-hand page of a book, normally bearing an 'odd' page number.

Red under gold Having edges coloured red and then gilded. It is most frequently used on Bibles and prayer books.

Reference 1. A direction, in a catalogue or bibliography, from one heading to another. 2. A partial registry of a book under a heading other than that used for the main entry, referring to the main entry.

The former is the kind more usually found in catalogues and appears in two forms, the *see* reference and the *see also* reference. The *see* reference directs attention from a heading under which no entries have been made, to the appropriate heading where the required entries will be found. As an example, the works of the Earl of Halsbury may be entered in the catalogue under his family name, as

Giffard, Hardinge Stanley, *1st earl of Halsbury*, but for the convenience of the enquirer who may look under his title a reference is made in the form Halsbury, Hardinge Stanley Giffard, *1st earl of*, *see* Giffard, Hardinge Stanley, *1st earl of Halsbury*.

The *see also* reference acts as a guide to further search, referring from a heading under which entries have been made to another heading where entries may also be found, e.g. Preaching, *see also* Sermons; or Printing, *see also* Publishing.

References of both kinds may be either specific (referring to one particular heading or even to a particular book) or general (indicating the kind of heading or a number of headings which should be consulted).

Reference card A catalogue card bearing a cross reference.

Reference libraries The Reference Library is the oldest form of library in the history of the world: even in the days of clay tablets there were temple libraries in which such tablets were available for consultation, and where lists of them were inscribed on the walls. To define a reference library as one where the material may not be removed from the building would, however, be wrong: the true concept of a reference library is rather a collection of written and printed sources to which people may resort for information. It is in fact better to look on the reference library as a living encyclopaedia: itself a summary of the aims and ideas and achievements of mankind which attempts to provide a complete picture of current information on the subjects within its field. From this it may be seen that as long as a reference library is able to provide adequate information on any topic at any given moment, it is reasonable that it should be allowed to lend secondary material whenever it is thought necessary or desirable to do so.

The material of which a reference library is composed has no bounds: all sources of information come within its scope—not only books and periodicals, newspapers and pamphlets, but also maps and charts, gramophone records, motion and strip films, lantern slides, microfilms and many other objects (such as actual examples of textiles, etc.)

REFERENCE LIBRARIES

which may conceivably add to the information contained in the more conventional reference works. This is, in fact, what constitutes a reference tool: rejecting the accepted idea that a true reference work is one which is built on the lines of a dictionary, an encyclopaedia, a glossary, etc., it is best to think in terms of something from which individual items of information may easily be extracted, a condition which presupposes either a scientific arrangement of contents by some recognizable scheme such as alphabetical, chronological or evolutionary order, or the provision of detailed indexes. Thus, a given book may at the same time be acceptable for both lending and reference use: to one reader it will appeal as a work which he wishes to read completely, while to the reference librarian it may seem eminently suited to reference use owing to its orderly arrangement of facts and to its thorough equipment with illustrations, tables, appendices, indexes, etc.

In the early history of libraries the reference library was usually the chief if not the only part of the library. Thus the monastic libraries, the Bodleian, Sion College library, etc., were all true reference libraries. In more recent times the reference library has tended to become a department of a much larger organization, and at that not always the most important section. To-day reference libraries are to be found in all types of libraries—university, special, public, etc.—but they are usually subordinated to a system which may embrace many other features such as lending and travelling libraries, branches, information services, extension work, etc. The function of the reference library has scarcely changed, but its position and its methods have altered and developed. Thus, in the larger public and university libraries the reference service is co-ordinated with all the other activities of those libraries, to the benefit of the system as a whole. This co-ordination affects many things: choice of material is made on lines which ensure that collections in the different departments complement and strengthen rather than merely duplicate or overlap each other; members of the staff are frequently changed from one department to another so that their experience is enlarged; readers in one department are advised of the resources of

the others. In all this it is true to say that the reference library gains far more than it loses, and that the reference library which largely remains a watertight compartment is both an anachronism and also an indication of serious inefficiency.

A reference library not only includes many types of material, but it may also consist of several different departments: it may for instance have, in addition to the general collection of reference works, such departments as Commercial, Technical, Government Publications, Maps and Atlases, Art, Music or other subject divisions. Even small public reference libraries usually have, if not a separate Local Collection, at least a section on this subject which may form a considerable part of the total department. And with these divisions there may be staff with special qualifications in the appropriate subjects. While the basic desirable qualification of a reference librarian is undoubtedly a thorough grounding in all aspects of librarianship, it is equally certain that a specialist qualification is very necessary wherever there is a definite concentration on one subject-field. Training in other departments before coming to reference work is of great importance: the librarian with a good knowledge of cataloguing and classification procedure is an asset to his colleagues when he joins the reference staff.

In a reference library the demands of space made by both readers and material must necessarily result in a compromise: once the stock of the department exceeds that of the available open-shelf space it is essential to realize that only a token collection of reference material can be displayed if sufficient room is to be left for readers. Thus, the majority of new additions to a reference library will be consigned to the bookstack immediately, for a reference work comes to be trusted and demanded by its readers only after its reputation has been firmly established, a process which may take some years. Even more than in other branches of a library service it is therefore necessary for a reference library to be thoroughly catalogued and classified: material which is not so treated is practically worthless, since it is rarely available speedily—which is what is almost invariably demanded of

reference material nowadays. A reference library's efficiency depends, in fact, on the detailed organization of its contents, and on adequate—i.e. roomy, well-lit, dry and convenient—storage-space. Few reference libraries can boast such a feature to-day.

Just as the modern reference library cannot operate independently of other departments in the same library system, so it would be foolish to carry out its work without intimate knowledge of and day-to-day contact and co-operation with other sources of information (a) locally, and (b) further afield. For example, reference libraries are becoming increasingly dependent on long files of periodicals: it is possible for several libraries in the same neighbourhood to build up sets of the same titles, but it is hardly desirable when, by co-operation, they can collect different periodicals on the same subject and thus increase the total resources in the area (the best example of this being the Sheffield scheme). In the same way, reference libraries in a number of areas throughout the country are collaborating on such questions as the division of subject fields, the purchase of expensive works, the compilation of union lists of periodicals, the disposal of withdrawn material, the temporary exchange of staff and other points which help to make their services mutually more efficient. Nationally, co-operation occurs in such forms as union catalogues of periodicals, directories of subject resources, the formation of subject groups, the preparation of annotated lists of the best reference items, etc. Future developments may well take such forms as the joint provision of regional reference libraries in areas where now there are none, the comprehensive co-operative coverage of material and the compilation of bibliographies in given subject-fields, and the more efficient pooling of resources. Basically what is needed is a standard reference service recognizable as such by readers, so that they can confidently enter a reference library in the same way as they now enter a post-office, secure in the knowledge that certain basic services can be expected from the smallest, and a comprehensive service from the larger reference libraries throughout the country. This would imply that even very small libraries should be well

equipped with catalogues and bibliographical aids so that what has been written on a subject and the whereabouts of individual copies of books can always be discovered. The provision of these, and also of the larger and rarer reference items, comes nearer for every library with the rapid development of the microcard and the microfilm: very shortly it should be possible to equip even small county library branches with micro-copies of the reference aids appropriate nowadays to a city of a quarter-of-a-million population, and with this step forward a real public reference service will begin.

Butler, P., ed. *The reference function of the library*. University of Chicago Press, 1943.

Cowley, J. D. *The use of reference material*. 1937.

Hutchins, M. *Introduction to reference work*. Chicago, A.L.A., 1944.

Stewart, J. D., ed. *The reference librarian*. 1951.

Warner, J. *Reference library methods*. 1928.

Rothstein, S. *The development of reference services through academic traditions*. Chicago, 1955.

R. L. C.

Reference mark Symbols, either letters or figures, used to call attention to material in another place, e.g. a footnote. Symbols used include: * (asterisk); † (dagger); ‡ (double dagger); § (section mark); || (parallels); ¶ (paragraph mark). Superior numbers are often used for the same purpose.

Reference matter See SUBSIDIARIES.

Reflectography See REFLEX COPYING.

Reflex copying A non-optical photocopying process. Sensitized paper is placed in contact with a document with the emulsion side of the paper facing the printed matter. Light rays passing through the sensitized paper are reflected from the white or light portions of the document, and are absorbed by the dark portions. After developing, a mirror-image of the original in reversed colours appears. This negative can then be copied to produce a facsimile of the original. The principle of reflex copying was established by Albrecht Breyer of Berlin, a medical student at the University of Liège, who in 1839 produced reflex prints by placing silver chloride papers in contact with printed

REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS

pages. He referred to his prints as heliographs, and correctly explained the reflex process. The process appears to have been forgotten, and did not come into general use until 1896, when J. Hart Player used it in his process known as Playertype. The process has also been known as reflectography.

Regional library systems *Purpose* Public libraries in Britain, and many special libraries, have grouped themselves voluntarily in to geographical regions (eight in England, one each in Scotland and Wales) in order to make generally available all local resources. Requests for items not held in a member library are sent to the Regional Library Bureau or centre where, in most cases by means of a union catalogue of constituent libraries' holdings, required works are located within the area and the requests forwarded to the appropriate library. Applications for unlocated items are passed to the National Central Library. In the Yorkshire and North-Western Regions there are no comprehensive union catalogues of loanable material; the former relies on the holdings of five large zonal libraries and sundry subsidiaries, passing requests from one to another in rotation until a copy of the required work is found. The North-Western Region's catalogue, until recently, contained only reference stocks, and twice-weekly lists of desiderata are circulated to constituent libraries, who notify items listed which are available.

The Regions act as a filter at the first stage of the national inter-lending service, and provide entries from their union catalogues as the basis of the National Union Catalogue. On average they supply three-quarters of the requests originating in their own area. The time taken to do this varies with the work, and from Region to Region, but averages 14 to 17 days. Most public libraries are members of their appropriate Regional System, and 21 academic libraries, but only 100 out of 250 'outliers' of the N.C.L. also contribute to inter-library co-operation through the local Regional Bureau. The Bureaux are the central offices, usually housed in a dominant public library of the Region. Their functions include—

(a) The compilation and maintenance of

a union catalogue of member-libraries' holdings.

(b) Location of requested items and the control of inter-library loans within the area.

(c) Contribution of copies of union catalogue entries to the N.C.L. for its National Union Catalogue.

(d) Forwarding of requests for unlocated items to the N.C.L.

(e) Maintenance of records relating to inter-library loans in the area.

Requests handled annually vary in number from under 9,000 in each of the two Welsh Bureaux to nearly 74,000 in the South-Eastern Region. Altogether, the 11 Bureaux handle between 250,000 and 300,000 requests each year.

History All this activity sprang from prompting by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust which, following upon recommendations in the reports of Mitchell (1924), the Board of Education Public Libraries Committee (1927) and Wright (1928) encouraged one area after another to form a co-operative group, offering as an incentive a grant towards the heavy initial costs of compiling a union catalogue. There were precedents in local schemes on a small scale in South-East London in 1911-12 and in Cornwall in 1927. Mitchell recorded a suggestion by Mr. John Gardiner, librarian of Airdrie, that the Central Library in Dunfermline should have in its possession the catalogues of all the public libraries in Scotland, and should be able to borrow books from any public library for the use of another. The Kenyon Report stated, 'We shall not be satisfied by mere extension of . . . co-operation between adjoining libraries. That is only the foundation. We desire to see the library service go forward, by the linking up of these co-operating groups into larger groups, each centred on some great library which may conveniently be described as a regional library.'

Despite qualms concerning the financial basis of such ventures, which led both the Committee and Captain Wright to assume that in order to persuade larger libraries to participate some direct financial contribution would have to be made to them by smaller

libraries in each area, the Regions have become self-supporting by means of graded subscriptions based mainly on population, and it has been found that 'the larger the book fund per head of population, the greater is the use made of the Regional Bureau' (G. E. Clarke, 1947).

Since 1931 representatives of the Regional Library Systems, the Joint Standing Committees on Library Co-operation (for universities), the C.U.K.T. and the L.A. have joined to form the National Committee on Regional Library Co-operation, which co-ordinates their efforts and links them with the N.C.L., on whose Executive Committee the Regions have four representatives. A Joint Working Party set up with the N.C.L. in 1949 appointed Mr. R. F. Vollans in 1950 to examine the workings of the national inter-lending system. His recommendations relating to the Regional Library Systems included—

1. University and special libraries (outside London and the South-East) should be members of their Regional Library System, while retaining the right of direct approach to the N.C.L.
2. All regional union catalogues should be brought up to date and incorporated in the National Union Catalogue up to a given date; thereafter, British publications should be excluded from it.
3. After the given date, all Regions should be self-sufficient for British books, by means of subject coverage and joint reserve schemes.
4. Special attention should be given regionally to the co-operative storage of out-of-print fiction and periodicals.
5. Books in print and costing 25s. or less should be excluded from the scope of the N.C.L., which should not buy British books once (3) above had come into force.

These and other suggestions were incorporated in a joint memorandum, *Recommendations on library co-operation*, 1954, which was issued by the Joint Working Party (see also NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY, SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION).

Sewell, P. H. and Plumb, P. W. *The regional library systems*. 2nd ed., 1956.

Vollans, R. F. *Library co-operation in Great Britain*. 1952.

Newcombe, L. *Library co-operation in the British Isles*. 1937.

Wright, R. *Regional libraries in England*. Library Association (County Libraries Section). 1928.

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See also: *Regional handbook* of South-Eastern Region (1946), Northern Region (2nd ed., 1956) and East Midlands Region (1955). and Reading Lists to articles on Library Co-operation and Subject Specialization. See Tables pp. 270–71.

J.F.W.B.

Register 1. The exact alignment of pages back to back during the printing of the second side of the sheet so that the text areas exactly coincide. 2. The correct positioning of colours in multiple colour work. 3. A piece of ribbon, braid or cord, attached to the spine of the book at the head, to be used as a book marker. 4. A list or official enumeration; a catalogue or bibliography.

Registration of readers Only a proportion of those entitled to use a library will make use of its facilities. Those intending to borrow books are asked to 'register,' usually by completing an application form containing an undertaking to comply with the rules. After the qualifications have been checked, the intending reader is supplied with a membership card or reader's tickets and the application form is filed in a register of borrowers.

Reglet A thin wooden strip used for making spaces between lines of type instead of leads.

Regulations See BYELAWS AND REGULATIONS.

Rejection slip A printed slip sent out by a publisher with a returned manuscript informing the author that the manuscript will not be used for publication (*Book. Gloss.*).

Relation An English non-periodic pamphlet describing a battle or some other event, a

REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS

Region and Bureau	Date of Foundation	Libraries			Area and Population served
		Town	County	Special	
LONDON UNION CATALOGUE (N.C.L.)	1929 (Taken over by M.B. Standing Jt. Com., 1934)		28 Met. Boroughs and City of London		Metropolitan London 3,348,217
NORTHERN (Newcastle Lit. and Phil. Society)	1931	22	3	18	Cumberland, Durham, Northumberland, Westmorland, Yorkshire (Cleveland District) 2,797,220
WEST MIDLANDS (Birmingham P.L.)	1931	40	5	17	Herefordshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire 4,490,000
WALES and MONMOUTHSHIRE (a) Aberystwyth (Nat. Lib. of Wales) (b) Cardiff P.L.	1931	16 16	11 2	5 10 (+ 8)	North Wales 1,307,912 Glamorgan and Monmouthshire 1,190,863
SOUTH-EASTERN (N.C.L.)	1933	75	10	—	Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey, Sussex 10,239,000
EAST MIDLANDS (Leicester P.L.)	1935	37	11	13	Cambridgeshire, Derbyshire, Huntingdonshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Rutlandshire, Suffolk, Isle of Ely, Northamptonshire, Nottinghamshire 8,058,778
NORTH-WESTERN (Manchester P.L.)	1935	77	2	28	Cheshire, Lancashire, Isle of Man, 6,406,000 (approx).
YORKSHIRE (Sheffield P.L.)	1935	46	3	2	Yorkshire 4,396,813
SOUTH-WESTERN (Bristol P.L.)	1937	36	9	10	Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Gloucestershire, Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Oxfordshire, Somerset, Wiltshire 4,980,000
SCOTLAND (Edinburgh, Scottish Central Library)	1921 (U. Cat. 1945-51) Scottish R.L. Bureau	50	30	44	Scotland 5,000,000 (approx).

Union Catalogue Entries/Titles	Requests P.A. (approx.)	Special Features
T. 350,000 (approx).	26,000	(a) Inter-availability of tickets throughout area (b) Union list of periodicals and annuals (1951) (c) Joint fiction reserve (1946) 49,000 volumes (1955) (d) Special collections scheme (1948) 163,701 volumes (1955) (e) Foreign fiction specialization (f) Union catalogue of sets of plays 665 titles (1955)
E. 581,000 T. 500,000 (approx).	16,000	(a) Quarterly meetings to discuss gaps in book purchase (b) Regional joint fiction reserve 6,000 titles (1955) (c) <i>Regional handbook</i> (2nd ed., 1956) (d) Wealth of rare material
E. 396,297	22,000	(a) Large proportion of requests met locally (b) Preponderance of loans from Birmingham P.L.
E. 464,618 E. 760,000 (approx).	8-9,000 8-9,000	(a) Subject allocation scheme (1953) (b) Index to permanent files of periodicals
T. 350,000 (approx). E. 2,000,000 (approx).	73,000	(a) Subject specialization scheme (1950) (b) <i>Regional handbook</i> (2nd ed., 1956)
E. 349,000	26,000	(a) Limited subject coverage scheme (1954) [Declared interests] (b) Regional storage scheme (3 libs.) (1954) (c) Foreign literature specialization (1948) (d) Play-reading sets co-operation (e) <i>Regional handbook</i> (1955)
E. 400,000 T. 390,000	33,000	(a) Bi-weekly lists of desiderata checked in 80 libraries (most special libs. omitted) (b) Subject specialization scheme (1954) (c) Regional drama scheme (1952) (d) 50 subscriptions to Lewis's Library (e) Report on <i>Library co-operation in the North-West</i> (1956)
Nil	11,000	(a) No union catalogue (b) 5 zonal centres (Bradford, Hull, Leeds, Sheffield, West Riding) to sub-zonal centres handle requests in rotation (c) Charge of 1s. per application form to libraries in Region
E. 493,000	32,000	(a) Incorporates first regional scheme (Cornwall 1927) (b) Subscriptions based on use made of system
T. 274,279	16,000	(a) Scottish Regional Library Bureau (1945) absorbed 1953 (b) Card union catalogue of local collections (c) Card union catalogue of Scottish family histories (d) Publications: <i>List of catalogues and bibliographies in the Scottish Central Library</i> (1956) <i>Scottish newspaper holdings in Scottish libraries</i> (1956) (e) Joint reserve of Scottish novelists' works (1955)

RELATIVE LOCATION

forerunner of the newspaper. Also known as a 'discourse' or a 'narration' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Relative location See CLASSIFICATION; DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION.

Relief map A type of map that represents elevations and depressions of the surface of the earth by various methods (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Relief printing A process in which the image or letter is above the surrounding metal or wood in distinction from intaglio or planographic printing.

Relinquishment of powers See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Remainder A publisher's stock of unsold copies of a book disposed of as a lot, to be resold at a reduced price (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Remarque proof See ARTIST'S PROOF.

Removal slip A card inserted in a catalogue to indicate that an entry has been removed for alteration. It bears sufficient information for the book to be identified, and indicates the whereabouts of the permanent card (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Renewal 1. The re-issue of a book to the same borrower for a further loan period. 2. The re-registration of a reader at the end of the period of library membership.

Repairing The partial rehabilitation of a worn binding including such operations as restoring cover and reinforcing at joints. Not to be confused with mending.

Repertory A catalogue of books in more than one library.

Replacement 1. The substitution of another copy of a title or volume for one no longer in a library. 2. The copy of a title or volume substituted, or to be substituted, for another copy no longer in the library (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Reprint Another printing of a work from the same standing type as the original or from a stereotype or electrotpe taken from the original. A new title-page may be substituted and corrections of minor errors in the text made, but the text remains substantially identical with the first printing. Where

extensive revision of the text is made or the type is recomposed, the new printing must strictly be termed a new edition.

Reprint series A number of publications, being reprints, not necessarily related in subject or treatment, issued by a publisher in uniform style and assigned a collective series title.

Republication 1. A re-issuing of a work by a different publisher without change in text. Sometimes applied to a reprinting in another country. 2. In a very broad sense, a re-issuing of a work, with or without change in text, or as a new edition (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Reserved book A book which has been requested by a borrower—usually by completing a notification form—is intercepted at the return counter and the intending borrower is informed by post that the required book will be kept for a stated period. Libraries which arrange loan records in book order intercept by inserting a 'stop' signal in the loan record or 'charge.' Other libraries check all returned books against a visible index of those required.

Simpson, E. 'The reservation of books: an investigation.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1952, 54, 395-8.

Sayers, W. C. B. 'How many copies? some random thoughts.' *Libr. World*, 1953, 54, 130-1.

Resetting Setting type again owing to change of layout or corrections.

Resist Composition used to protect metal from acid action during etching.

Retouching Hand etching or improvement to a negative in process work.

Retree A term denoting slightly defective sheets of paper, derived from French *retiré*, withdrawn.

Review copy A copy of a new book sent free by a publisher for review, notice or record (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Revise A proof after the first proof and its corrections have been returned to the printer.

Revised edition A new edition with the text of the original edition changed and corrected,

and sometimes with additions that supplement it or bring it up to date (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Revolving book-case A book-case having four faces of one or more tiers built around a central cylinder and rotating on a spindle.

Rivers Streaks of white space which appear on a printed page due to overmuch spreading of the type either to occupy an excessively large sheet of paper or by accidental use of incorrect spaces.

Roebuck, George Edward (1877-1953). Librarian of Walthamstow from 1907-46, where one of his innovations was an adolescents' library; was more than any other librarian responsible for the Parliamentary campaign which ended in the passing of the Public Libraries Act of 1919, although neither then nor at any other time did he hold any high office in the Library Association. (See Savage, E. A., *Libr. World*, 1954, 55, 167-71.) G.J.

Rolled edges Edges of book covers decorated by means of a finishing tool consisting of a brass wheel with a design engraved on its rim.

Roller shelves Large shelves for storing folios, etc., which rest on a series of small rollers. The handling of the books is facilitated and the bindings protected in that when it is desired to remove items, the shelves will move towards the reader, enabling him to lift the volume rather than pull on the binding.

Rolling case See **SHELVING**.

Rolling press See **SHELVING**.

Roman à clef A novel in which one or more characters are based on real people, with names disguised (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Roman type The name given to a style of letter derived from the Italian humanistic hand of the 15th century and copied by the early printers in Italy.

Rosin A hard substance used in sizing paper, derived from the distillation of turpentine, principally abietic acid.

Rotary press A printing press which impresses type-matter from a cylinder rather than from the flat bed of the traditional press.

Capable of much higher speeds, and used especially in newspaper work. The curved form from which impressions are taken is usually derived from stereotype moulds. Rotary presses are also used in gravure work demanding large impressions in a short space of time.

Rotogravure printing An intaglio process of printing illustrations using an etched copper cylinder and a rotary press (see also **PHOTO-GRAVURE**).

Rough Rag paper that has not been given a 'finish' (see also **NOT; HOT PRESSED**).

Rough edges A generic term, including 'uncut (untrimmed) edges' and 'deckle edges.'

Round or rounded corner A book cover in which the board is rounded at the corner before covering; usually confined to leather bindings on small Bibles and prayer books.

Rounding In binding, that process which gives books a convex spine and a concave fore-edge.

Routine slip See **PROCESS SLIP**.

Routing Cutting away by machine that part of a block which is not needed for printing.

Routing slip A form attached in a library to a periodical or other publication which is to be sent to one or more persons, generally with spaces for names, dates, etc. (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Royal Standard size of printing paper 20 × 25 in.

Rub-off Insufficiently dried ink which smears on to the fingers when the printed sheet is handled.

Rubbing An impression of lettering or stamping made by working with a soft crayon or pencil on a fine sheet of paper placed over the design which it is desired to copy. Used to indicate styles of binding.

Rubrication The colouring of initials, etc., in red, blue or other pigments as in early manuscripts. Practised in early printed books, e.g. by Fust and Schöeffer; sometimes done by stamping initials by hand, or later, by a second printing.

RULES

Rules Strips of metal of various thicknesses and of standard length and of type height used to print lines. Ornamented rules of many styles are available for making up into borders, etc.

Rules (law) See BYELAWS AND REGULATIONS.

Run The number of copies printed from a given forme at one printing.

Run-around Variation of length of line of type to fit blocks in an advertisement.

Run on 1. A sentence not separated from the context into a new paragraph. Also a chapter not commencing a new page. 2. Instruction to a printer, *e.g.* not to make a break in the continuity of the text.

Run-over Matter continued on a succeeding page.

Run-up gilt back In 'extra' binding, when a gold line is run by a file from head to tail so that the gilt panel lines are not mitred at each band.

Runner References at intervals in the margins of a book to locate given lines.

Running title, Running head The title or short title repeated at the head of each page of a book, or section of a book (*see also* HEADLINE; CAPTION TITLE).

Rustic capital An upper case letter with a design engraved on the face, or an ornamentally designed letter.

S

S.C. See SUPERCALENDERED PAPER.

Saddle stitching Stitching with thread or wire through the fold of a single section. So called from the saddle of a stitching machine (see also SIDE STITCHING).

Sample back A strip of binding material made up like the back of a book, to be used as a sample for matching colour, fabric, lettering, etc.

Sample pages Selected specimen pages of a book printed to indicate to prospective purchasers the style of the forthcoming volume.

Sanborn, Kate E. and Cutter-Sanborn Tables (see CUTTER AUTHOR MARKS).

Sans serif Types which are characterized by the absence of the finishing cross bars at the end of the strokes of the letters. The letters are also of even thickness throughout. Originally called 'grotesque' type sans serif types are now especially associated with the name of Eric Gill.

Sawing-in Grooves sawn across the back of a book for the reception of the sewing-cord in certain styles of hand-sewing.

Scale The ratio between a given distance on a map to the corresponding distance on the earth's surface (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Scaling The process of calculating the area by which an illustration block must be adjusted to fit the layout.

Schedule See CLASSIFICATION.

Schoeffer, Peter (1425?-1502?). An associate of Gutenberg and Fust in the early days of printing. Educated at the University of Paris; worked with Fust after the foreclosure of 1455 at the printing press associated with Gutenberg; partner with Fust till the latter died in 1466. Notable productions of their press include the Psalter (1457) with coloured initials. Has been credited with the introduction of the colophon, leading between lines,

Greek characters, coloured letters and the practice of dating books. His specimen sheet of 1470 is considered the first booksellers advertisement for printed books.

School libraries

1. General

Purpose and uses The need for a school library arises from the nature of education itself, with its concern for the development of the whole personality. The school library serves many ends: enrichment of teaching by provision of illustrative background material; instruction and practice in the use of books and of a library; reference; 'extended reference' (project and research work); development of pupils' personal interests; recreative reading. It also gives opportunity for the exercise of various administrative responsibilities.

Teaching the use of books The school library has a special position among libraries in that it is possible to ensure that every member of the community it serves becomes familiar with it and is given help in its use. Help may be given to individuals incidentally as the need arises; to groups for some special piece of work; or by a course of systematic organized instruction. For this, classes may be given regular definite periods in the library ('library periods'). The objective in all 'library work' is to help the pupil to use books and library independently, to train him to discover facts, check and compare evidence and form judgments for himself.

Library periods are periods in the time-table allotted regularly to classes in secondary schools, for use of the library and not for work that can as well be done elsewhere. Younger pupils may use such periods to explore the library and for undirected reading ('browsing'); to assimilate library tradition and practice; to undertake simple work making use of the resources of the library; to take out books for home reading and return

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

them. Later, systematic instruction in using the library for various purposes may be given and practised. Such teaching must be given gradually, and never in bulk, and should be linked with a clearly understood objective. On no account should it become a school 'subject.' Skill thus acquired in using books may serve personal interests as well as school work. Its value in advanced work cannot be overestimated; and it is a skill (and an attitude) that can be carried over into adult life.

Scope In view of the breadth of the whole school curriculum and the wide field of children's personal interests, the library must be *comprehensive in range*, and must provide for the needs of the school *at all levels*, from the youngest and most backward to the most advanced. For Sixth Forms in grammar schools this implies books of adult standard; for specialists, books of first year university standard. A special need is provision of books for backward readers.

The teacher and the library All good teaching involves co-operation between teacher and pupil, and seeks all the time to increase the pupil's own part in the process of learning, so that his responsibility grows progressively. For this a good library, and training in its use, is indispensable. Full exploitation of a library depends directly on the character of the teaching. Teachers need to understand fully themselves the contribution the library can make to their own work; and it is extremely important that this shall be kept in view in Training College work. This principle has always been accepted in good Sixth Form teaching; it is clearly applicable at earlier stages.

2. *The library in different kinds of schools*

1. *Primary* Important principles are: (a) that the child's first introduction to books shall be pleasurable; (b) that he shall throughout the primary period have books constantly at hand as familiar companions. Book provision, therefore, may take the form of: (a) *book corners* or *library corners* at the infant stage (ages 5 to 7), where attractive books are displayed and are available for any child to take and look at; (b) *classroom libraries* of some scores of books (not sets of 'readers') always kept in the classroom, or lent to it temporarily,

covering many subjects and interests (stories, poetry, nature, Bible, simple reference, personal interests); (c) a *general library* ('central collection') of at least some hundreds of books, covering the widest range of subject matter, kept together in some place (not a classroom) where children can consult them at will. This is of special importance at the older junior stage (ages 9 to 11), when the child's rapidly growing thirst for knowledge demands satisfaction. From the general library loans may be made to classroom libraries as well as to individuals for home reading. In small schools provision is naturally simpler, but the same principles hold good.

2. *Secondary* Common practice is to provide a *library room*; this is obligatory by Ministry of Education regulations for all new secondary schools. Here the collection is kept as a whole, and library activities take place. Some large schools have a senior and a junior library, each comprehensive for the ages it serves. Some large grammar schools, and a number of public schools, have developed considerable subject libraries for advanced use, housed where Sixth Form subject groups are taught. Though this practice has certain advantages for the specialists served, it tends to withdraw them from the main library, and it may detract seriously from its unity and comprehensiveness, particularly in subjects which have a wide general appeal. Extensive duplication of stock may be necessary.

3. *Very large schools* (1,500 and upwards) Little is known as yet in practice about the best form of library provision. A single library room serving the whole school may well be unwieldy, and will certainly be forbidding to younger pupils. It may even be impracticable, if the school buildings are widely spread. Possible solutions are: (a) two or more parallel libraries; (b) division based on age (senior and junior libraries).

3. *Book selection*

Fundamental principles are: (a) to provide a comprehensive range, suitable to capacity of pupils; (b) to provide for all ages and levels of intelligence; (c) as funds are limited, it is particularly important to make sure that each book is as good of its kind as possible.

Subject to this proviso, each school should

develop its library to suit its own needs; there is no 'standard school library.' The library will reflect local conditions (e.g. of occupation or industry), and above all it will represent the school's own character. In all schools it is important that the less gifted members of the school, and the younger ones, shall receive satisfaction. A library committee is useful to formulate general policy (e.g. allocation of funds). For actual choice of books the librarian will naturally refer to whatever expert opinion is available—for school subjects this will no doubt be mainly found within the school; for other subjects each school will find its own method, using all information accessible (staff, pupils, parents, public library, bookshops). The librarian will keep in touch with booklists and reviews. Within the library the general reference section is of special importance. Attention should be given to building up a rich collection of material on the school itself and on its neighbourhood.

Stock: size of library There is at present an enormous variety in the size of school libraries; some have still less than one volume per pupil; others sixty or more. It has been held that the *minimum effective size* of a school library (so as to provide in the barest and simplest way for all the uses mentioned earlier) is 1,600 volumes for a grammar school, 1,000 for a secondary modern school—the difference being due to the requirements of Sixth Form work in a grammar school. A fully developed library—according to present views, may comprise 8,000 to 10,000 volumes for a grammar school, 6,000 for a secondary modern school—these figures applying to 'live' and usable books. But many schools have far more books than this, and it may well be found that these figures are too low. Factors that affect size are: range of work (especially number of advanced courses); range of school activities; size of school; nearness of a good public library.

Non-book material It is desirable that some newspapers and periodicals shall be available, partly to bring material up to date, partly because much important matter is not obtainable otherwise; but above all because it is important to encourage an intelligent attitude to the press. For enrichment of classroom

work, collections of illustrations and maps are useful.

4. Premises

Traditional provision is the single library room, though it is rarely of adequate size. Experience shows that what is really needed at the secondary level is a group of rooms, which may comprise any or all the following: main library; reading room; one or two 'conference rooms,' where small groups may discuss their work; a librarian's room; a store room. Where all this is impossible, it is useful to be able to bring a neighbouring classroom into library use as required (see Ministry of Education *Building Bulletin* No. 2—relevant matter reprinted with comment in *School Librarian*, December, 1950). In planning the room, excessive window space should be avoided, as this may interfere seriously with book capacity. Maximum height of shelving in secondary schools should be six, or at most seven shelves, in primary schools four. On this subject generally S.L.A. *Memorandum on planning and equipment* may be consulted.

5. Finance

Two kinds of expenditure are necessary: (a) a *capital grant*, to provide the basic stock in a new library; (b) an *annual grant*, for its maintenance and further development. By present Ministry regulation the capital grant may rank as capital expenditure on the same footing as expenditure on furniture and equipment. Responsibility for grant lies with the Local Education Authority. While there is no statutory obligation governing grants, the stock and general effectiveness of the library is one of the factors taken into account in assessing the efficiency of a secondary school.

It is difficult to estimate costs; but the following figures have been discussed: capital grant for a grammar school £1,500, for a secondary modern school £1,000; annual grant for grammar school at least £200, for a secondary modern school £120 to £150 (say 600 to 700 pupils in each case). The figures for a secondary modern school would probably apply to a large primary school. These figures may be regarded as not unreasonable minimum figures now, and rising prices may invalidate them. A good school library cannot be built

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

up without adequate provision. Grants may be supplemented by gifts and other income (e.g. proceeds of concerts), but these should not be regarded as substitutes for grant. The resources of the library may often be enriched for special purposes by loans from the municipal or county library.

Spending of annual grant The following are the main expenses (the figures in brackets give approximate percentage of total expenditure): books (60); papers and periodicals (20); binding (15); miscellaneous running expenses (5). But especially in earlier years more may be spent on books and less on periodicals and binding.

6. Some questions of administration

Classification An established system is necessary, though it may be used in a simplified form, especially in secondary modern and primary schools. This is usually Dewey, because of its use in public libraries and its general availability. It does not fit very well the pattern of British education, and, especially in specialist fields, leaves much to be desired. Bliss is admirably suited for school use, but is at present only available in an expensive 4-volume edition; a good school edition would be a boon. Some schools use the Cheltenham scheme, but this is out of print.

Charging Various methods are in use—register, book slip, book card, reader's ticket. Probably the most generally useful is the book card, signed by the borrower. This provides evidence of the use of each book. For evidence of pupils' reading, some schools favour the keeping of a *reading diary* by each pupil. As it is usually more important to know quickly where a book is than how long it has been out, cards or slips may well be filed by author (or class) rather than by date.

Pupil assistance In some schools this has been developed on a considerable scale, not so much to assist the librarian (it does in fact demand some of his time to train them) as on grounds of educational policy, to bring as many pupils as possible actively into the work of the library. There are tasks to suit all ages and types of pupil: simple tidying; charge of a section; supervising issue and recall; processing books; lettering, display, craft-work; simple repairs; maintenance of discipline;

service on committee. They may also act as library representatives in their own forms. A child during his school career may hold in turn a number of these posts, and thereby gain a wide knowledge of the library and its use. This is in addition to the use he learns to make of it for his own work and recreation.

7. The librarian

Nearly all school libraries in Great Britain are in the charge of part-time teacher-librarians. While the reason for this is historical (for the school library as an institution is far older than the rise of professional librarianship), the practice has also in itself educational advantages, as when the library is in charge of a member of the teaching staff personally familiar with the activities of the school, both in the classroom and outside it, and daily in touch with it, there is the best chance of a close integration of the library with the life of the school. None the less the need is recognized: (a) for a proper degree of skill and knowledge of librarianship appropriate to school libraries, and (b) for adequate time for administration.

(a) Courses of school librarianship of varying length and character exist, but so far without co-ordination. The content of a complete course has been considered by a joint committee of representatives of the Library Association and the School Library Association with the assistance of H.M.I.'s, and its findings published in the *Library association record* and in the *School librarian* (March, 1955). Negotiations are at present in progress for the award by the L.A. and the S.L.A. for a joint certificate for teacher-librarians, covering both technical matters and educational use.

(b) A library of 10,000 books (or even fewer) fully used probably requires the equivalent of a teacher's full time. If the class-room contact stressed above is to be preserved, the duties may be shared by two or more members of the staff. This has the merit of spreading awareness of the library among the staff, and it makes for continuity when changes of staff take place. Pupil help has already been mentioned.

8. The school library and the public library

While it is not the province of the public

library to provide or administer the school library, it is greatly to the advantage of both that their relations shall be close. The adult use of the public library should eventually profit much as the provision and effective use of the school library increases; besides, during the child's school life the school can and should encourage its pupils to join and use the public library, whether in the children's or adults' sections. The public library can give most valuable help to the school by advice, information and loan of books. The school library movement owes a very great deal to the public library system, which has often provided books in schools before their own libraries existed and supplemented their meagre resources and has in general done indispensable pioneering work in most fields of librarianship.

9. Short bibliography

The following reports on various aspects of the subject should be consulted:

Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. *Libraries in secondary schools*. 1936.

School Library Association. *School libraries to-day*. 1950.

Ministry of Education. *The school library*. 1952.

School Library Association in Scotland. *A report on secondary school libraries in Scotland in 1952*. 1953.

School Library Association. *Report on libraries in primary schools*. (Forthcoming.)

FIPECO: *Bulletin international* No. 67. 1950. (Includes reports on school libraries in various continental countries.)

Ranganathan, S. R. *School and college libraries*. 1942.

Ralph, R. G. *The library in education*. 1949.

Grimshaw, E. *The teacher librarian*. 1952.

Stott, C. A. *School libraries: a short manual*. 2nd ed., 1955.

C.A.S.

School Library Association The Association was formally constituted in January, 1937, after a provisional committee had been set up by a meeting (June, 1936) organized by Miss P. de Lépervanche (Mrs. Hodgson). The Association was greatly strengthened by the adhesion (1945) of the former School Libraries section of the Library Association; it was incorporated in 1955.

Aims To promote development of the school library as an instrument of education in schools of all kinds; to encourage efficient methods of administration; to provide opportunities for interchange of experience among school librarians and others interested in school libraries; to make contacts with other organizations with parallel objects.

Branches have been formed in most parts of the United Kingdom; and there are individual members in many countries.

Publications (a) *School librarian and school library review* (termly), the official organ of the Association; (b) various reports (*Draft*, 1942; *Joint*, 1945, new ed.; *School libraries to-day*, 1950; *Planning*, 1955; *Primary schools*, 1956); (c) Booklists; (d) *School libraries: a short manual*, 2nd ed., 1955 (C. A. Stott); (e) Leaflets giving guidance on special problems.

Library and information service are in process of organization.

Membership is either corporate or personal.

Office: Gordon House, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1. (Tel.: Euston 6716.)

C.A.S.

Schools for science and art Until the passing of the Public Libraries Act, 1919, library authorities were authorized to provide and maintain schools for science and schools for art. The Act of 1919 provides that the power of providing such schools shall cease, without prejudice, however, to the power of maintaining under the Public Libraries Acts any school already established.

A.R.H.

Schwabacher An early variety of gothic type popular in Germany about 1500.

SCONUL See STANDING CONFERENCE OF NATIONAL AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM and LIBRARY CO-OPERATION.

Scoring Making a groove in paper to facilitate folding, usually by scoring plates. The purpose is to prevent the fibres of the paper from cracking.

SCOTAPLL Standing Conference of Theological and Philosophical Libraries in London (see LIBRARY CO-OPERATION).

SCRIPT

Script 1. A term applied to any type face resembling handwriting. 2. A typescript; specifically, a typescript of a play, or film play, the text of the spoken part of a radio programme, etc. (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Scumming An ink absorbent film formed in lithographic printing which causes printing where not required.

Seal print A 15th century woodcut with blind embossing around the picture after the printing. Also called 'gypsographic' print.

Sealskin A leather derived from the Greenland or Newfoundland seal; generally used for limp bindings. It is soft to the touch. Pin seal is from the skin of the baby seal and has a finer grain.

'Second' indentation The distance from the left edge of a catalogue card (the 13th typewriter space) at which, according to predetermined rules, the title normally begins; on a standard ruled card, at the second vertical line. Also called 'inner indentation,' 'title indentation,' and 'paragraph indentation.'

Second vertical The second vertical line from left on a standard ruled catalogue card, marking the position of 'second indentation.'

Secondary bibliography An 'intensive' or special bibliography dealing with books relating to one subject for the compilation of which primary bibliographies have been used (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Secondary entry See ADDED ENTRY.

Secondary fullness The use of an abbreviated form of an author's name for secondary entries in a catalogue when the unit card is not used. Also known as 'author abbreviation' and 'subject fullness' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Section See DIVISION; SIGNATURE.

Section mark (§) A reference sign used to indicate separate sections or paragraphs.

Sectionalized index An index to a periodical divided into sections such as (a) long articles of importance, (b) short paragraphs and news items, (c) literature abstracts, etc. (*Libr. Gloss.*).

'See also' reference A direction in a catalogue from a heading under which entries are

listed to another term or name under which additional or allied information may be found. In the alphabetical subject catalogue and the dictionary catalogue, see also subject references are made from general subjects to their subordinate subjects, e.g. Economics see also Banks and banking; Capitalism; Factory system, but not to their own sub-heads, not Economics see also Economics—Periodicals; they are also made from subjects to related co-ordinate subjects, e.g. Needlework see also Embroidery, or Publishing see also Bookselling.

See copy An instruction to the printer to refer to the original manuscript to rectify an error.

'See' reference A direction in a catalogue from a term or name under which no entries are listed to the heading where entries are listed, e.g.

De La Fontaine, Jean see La Fontaine, Jean de.

United Kingdom see Great Britain.

Phthisis see Tuberculosis.

Select list A reading list which includes a selection only of the books in the library on the subject of the list (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Selective bibliography One which gives only a selection of the literature concerned, such selection having been made deliberately, either to meet the needs of a particular class of user or to exclude minor material, pamphlet material, etc.

Selective cataloguing The practice of selecting certain kinds of material in a library for cataloguing in various degrees of fullness, others being left uncatalogued. A measure of economy is achieved by selective cataloguing, the practice being based on the principle that the value of standard reference books, up to date textbooks, authoritative works and standard classics merits full cataloguing, that books of secondary importance, little-used works and obsolete editions merit only brief or partial cataloguing, whilst ephemeral items need not be catalogued at all.

The extent to which selective cataloguing may be practised depends largely on the

character of the library and the demands made on it by its readers. The existence of a complete shelf-register in addition to the catalogue is also a primary consideration, particularly with regard to the non-cataloguing of ephemeral items and pamphlet materials. Where the stock is thus recorded in shelf order such a finding list may indeed be all that is required for ephemeral fiction and the like, and a special arrangement of uncatalogued materials on the shelves may be deemed sufficient. For books of subject interest or author interest only, the provision of catalogue entries only under subject or author will effect economy of staff time and catalogue space whilst still retaining their essential representation in the catalogue.

Sensibly used, selective cataloguing achieves a logical relationship between the value of a work and its treatment in the library, the catalogue revealing adequate information regarding the essential stock with the minimum of cost. Its use tends to decline, however, with the introduction of centralized or co-operative cataloguing ventures, which confer commensurate economies whilst still allowing the compilation of complete catalogues.

Self-cover A pamphlet cover made of the same paper as the body of the pamphlet. Also 'self-wrapper.'

Sensitized paper Paper used in documentary reproduction processes which is coated with an emulsion sensitive to light. British Standard 1,896:1952 (*Recommendations for sizes of sensitized photographic papers and materials for document reproduction*) contains information about types of silver sensitized, diazotype and ferro-prussiate materials, and adds recommendations about the sizes of cut sheets of paper, widths and lengths of rolls, and quantity packaging of cut sheets of paper. The sizes of drawing-office prints, for which diazo and ferro-prussiate papers are commonly used, are given in British Standard 308:1953 (*Engineering drawing office practice*).

Separate A reprint of an individual article or chapter from a book or periodical, with or without a title-page and with or without the type reimposed. Often called an 'offprint.'

Serial 1. A publication issued in successive parts, usually at regular intervals, and, as a rule, intended to be continued indefinitely. Serials include periodicals, annuals (reports and year-books), memoirs, proceedings and transactions of societies. 2. Any literary composition, especially a novel, published in consecutive numbers of a periodical (*A.A. Code, A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Serial catalogue A public or an official catalogue of serials in a library, with a record of the library's holdings (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Serial number 1. The number denoting the place of the publication in a series (*A.A. Code*). 2. One of the consecutive numbers sometimes assigned to entries in a bibliography or a printed catalogue. 3. A card number.

Serial record A record of the serial holdings of a library.

Series 1. A number of separate works, usually related to one another in subject or otherwise, issued successively by a publisher, as a rule in uniform style, with a collective series title which generally appears at the head of the title-page, on the half-title or on the cover. 2. Each of two or more volumes of essays, lectures, articles or other writings, similar in character and issued in sequence. 3. Several successive volumes of a periodical or other serial publication numbered separately in order to distinguish them from preceding or following volumes of the same publication (*A.A. Code*).

Series entry 1. In a bibliography, a complete or partial list of the works published in a series listed under the name of the series. 2. A catalogue entry, made under the name of the series as heading, listing briefly the several works in the library which belong to that series, e.g.

International library of psychology, philosophy and scientific method; edited by C. K. Ogden. Taba, Hilda. The dynamics of education. 1932.

Series note A note in a catalogue entry, ordinarily following the collation, stating the name of the series to which the book belongs, e.g.

Taba, Hilda.

SERIES TITLE

The dynamics of education: a methodology of progressive educational thought, by Hilda Taba . . . With an introduction by William Heard Kilpatrick. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, 1932.

vi, 298 pp. (*Half-title*: International library of psychology, philosophy and scientific method; edited by C. K. Ogden.)

Series title The name of the series to which a book belongs, indicated on the cover, title-paper or somewhere else in the book.

Serif The short finishing stroke at the end of a hand-written letter caused by lifting the quill. In printing types this flourish has been found an important element in legibility, and is also used in the identification of type groups.

Set (printing) Types are said to have wide or narrow set according to the thickness of body given to each character.

Set flush Set flush to a margin is an instruction to be followed regardless of measure which may be different.

Set-off An impression made on sheets during printing by insufficiently quick drying of the ink on the previous sheets. Can be overcome by using driers in the ink or by interleaving with blank sheets.

Set solid Type-matter set without leading.

Setting type The art of composing type into text.

Sewing In bookbinding, fastening sections together one at a time by means of a needle and thread. To be distinguished from 'stitching.'

Sewing on tapes The thread looped over tapes between stitches.

Shaken In cataloguing, a term used to describe defective copies of a book with loose sheets and/or binding (*Book. Gloss.*).

Shank Or stem. The metal body on which the type letter is set.

Shaw, George Thomas (1863-1938). Master and Librarian of the Liverpool Athenaeum, 1889-1909, and City Librarian of Liverpool from 1909-29, inaugurated there the first municipal commercial library in England,

shortly after Glasgow's, in 1917, and began in 1925 the series of printed union catalogues of the lending libraries which challenged the current popularity of the card catalogue and demonstrated the superiority of full union cataloguing in great library systems for bibliographic and reference purposes.

G.J.

Sheaf binder A stout cover, usually of mill-board covered with a suitable leather, cloth, rexine, etc., into which the paper slips comprising a section of a sheaf catalogue are inserted and locked into place. The spine of the binder incorporates a slotted holder to take a label indicating the contents. Also called 'Sheaf catalogue holder.'

Sheaf catalogue A catalogue of paper slips, each bearing a single entry, held in loose-leaf binders which are labelled and shelved in specially designed racks.

Sheet 1. A separate piece of paper unfolded. 2. Such a sheet printed so that it may be folded to form consecutive pages for a book or pamphlet: best called a gathering. 3. In collation, a single piece of paper of any size printed to be read unfolded, i.e. text may be imposed as a single page on one side or on each side of the paper. Also called Broadside.

Sheffield interchange organization See SINTO.

Shelf A flat piece of wood, metal or plastic material attached horizontally to two uprights, either against a wall or independently. For special purposes shelves may be constructed as a series of slightly curved bars or of rollers. The standard length of wooden and metal shelves is 3 ft, a measurement found convenient for most library purposes.

Shelf capacity The capacity of a library for storing books, expressed as the total number of books which can be accommodated on the shelves (*see also* CUBOOL).

Shelf height 1. The vertical distance between shelves as varied by a library to accommodate books of different sizes. 2. The total height of a tier of shelves.

Shelf list A record of the books in a library arranged in the order in which they stand on

the shelves. Although sometimes used as a subject catalogue of the library, for which purpose the lack of bibliographic detail and analysis and lack of cross-references limit its usefulness, its primary purpose is to serve as the official inventory of the library's stock.

Shelf reading In American library practice, the checking of shelves to see that the books stand in their correct sequence. Also known as 'revising shelves,' 'reading the shelves,' and in British library practice forms part of the task of 'shelf tidying.'

Shelf register See SHELF LIST.

Shelf support 1. The part of a stack which holds the shelves; directly, as in a standard stack, or indirectly, as in a bracket stack. 2. Of individual shelves side fittings which maintain the shelf in position.

Shelving In a short article on bookstacks it is only possible to give a brief description of the developments which have taken place within the past few years and the many changes which have been made in planning and equipping libraries. Therefore, to ensure an efficient and economical scheme it is necessary, when planning a new library, that there be collaboration between the architect, the librarian and the equipment manufacturers. Briefly—

(a) A library must be designed to accommodate books and folios of every description.

(b) Planned to give ready access to every volume and easy communication with cataloguing, reading and delivery rooms.

(c) A ventilating system ensuring adequate fresh air, free of dust, with temperature and humidity control.

(d) A lighting system whereby the titles of books are easily read.

(e) Adequate provision for expansion.

Whereas in the past, wood was used for making book-cases and shelves, the modern tendency is to use metal. The reasons for the change are largely economic. Well-seasoned timber is difficult to obtain, whereas steel is readily available. The modern stove enamelling techniques offer a wide variety of colour schemes. The architect of to-day considers colour to be very important—as indeed it is.

Another advantage of steel is that it is everlasting and free of the risk of attack by the pests which cause so much damage to woodwork in many libraries and buildings.

The standard stack

The steel book-case sometimes called the Standard Stack is designed for use where architectural appearance and fine finish are of importance and is especially suited for use in open access stacks. The book-cases are made with a continuous shelf base which supports the double sheet-steel division panels and at the top the stacks are finished with a corniced cover plate. The shelves are adjustable at 1 in. intervals. Special features such as panelled or rounded ends to conceal columns or radiators can be incorporated and sloping shelves for display purposes can be fitted. Glass or wire mesh doors may be included to protect rare books. Sliding doors for quick reference are an advantage.

The bracket stack

This is one of the most economical and efficient stacks obtainable and is designed for use in stack rooms.

Tubular columns into which the shelf brackets engage are supported by a heavy shelf base and the shelves are easily adjusted at 1 in. intervals. Closed end panels and top covers may be fitted to give a more finished appearance, and various types of shelves or work desks to form study carrels may be fitted.

The multi-tier stack

Tubular columns designed to support thin deck floors and slotted to accept bracket shelves is a modern conception and used very extensively. The distance between the floors is such that books on the top shelf are accessible to people of average height. This system ensures a maximum storage space. Many of these stacks are several tiers high and are connected by book lifts, and occasionally by passenger lifts.

Manchester Library Committee. 1934, p. 20. Fairlie, R. 'National Central Library of Scotland.' *Builder*, 1936, 151, No. 4875, 60-61, 70-71.

Meikle, H. W. 'National Library of Scotland.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1937, 4, 13-15.

SHELVING

In stack rooms fitted with conventional stacks as previously described, Fremont Rider points out that the aisles which give access to the bookshelves take up about 65 per cent of the space in the stack. It is, therefore, desirable when planning a library with limited space, to consider the following methods of book storage.

Rider, F. *Compact book storage*. New York, Hadham Press, 1949.

Rolling cases

Economies in space can be achieved by rolling cases. These are metal stack units mounted on wide tread ball-bearing wheels. These cases are placed side by side forming a solid bank of books and by the use of this system about 50 per cent more books can be stored in a given floor area than is possible by the normal fixed shelving system. Individual cases are easy to pull out provided a hard level floor is provided. Wide ends extending from floor to ceiling, and individual cases or the whole bank of rolling cases can be secured by one lock, and protection given against theft, dust and fire, without detriment to ease of accessibility.

Libr. J., 1931, 56, 554.

Compact storage

Even more space may be saved by the installation of the compact storage system designed by Sneed & Co.

This system consists of units of three stacks, the centre row of fixed double-sided stacks having hinged double-sided stacks at each side. Each hinged stack is hung on ball-bearing pivots without rails or guides and is easily swung into the aisle to give access to material in the inner shelves.

A fine example of the utility of this system is to be seen in the Midwest Inter Library Centre at Chicago.

Esterquest, R. T. *The Midwest Centre*. 1951.

An elaborate system of compact storage is manufactured in America. This has the appearance of a normal stack from the front, but each individual shelf is mounted on runners and may be pulled out for access to volumes at each side.

Vertical shelf adjustment is arranged to take volumes of varying heights. These ranges

may be fixed back to back thus forming a solid bank of books.

Esterquest, R. T. 'The storage library and beyond.' *Libri*, 1951, 239-52.

Esterquest, R. T. 'The Mid-West Inter-Library Centre in Chicago.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 336-42.

Merrit. 'The bookstock.' In Fussler's *Library buildings for library service*. 1947.

Metcalf. 'The New England deposit library.' *Libr. Quart.*, 1942, 622-8.

Orr and Thompson. 'The library storage building.' *Libr. J.*, 1942, 150-3.

'Suggested standards in shelving.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1947, 49, 278-9.

Folding diagrams 7 and 8 in Ashburner's *Modern public library planning*. 1946.

C. W. R. F.

'Short form' cataloguing That kind of cataloguing in which, as a matter of policy, the entries give only the briefest possible details consistent with recognition of each item.

Short page A page with fewer lines than have been specified for the book as a whole.

Shorts The copies of different sheets needed to complete an imperfect edition (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Shoulder The blank space above and around the face of a type character.

Shoulder head A brief descriptive caption indented somewhat, occupying a separate line (see also **SIDEHEAD**).

Shoulder note A note at the upper outer corner of a page.

Show through The appearance of printed matter through from the verso to the recto of a leaf due to the penetration of ink or improper pressure (see also **STRIKE THROUGH**).

Side 1. The front or back cover face of a bound book. 2. The paper, cloth or other material used on the side of a cover.

Side stitching Stitching together single leaves or sections near the binding edge, with thread or wire, from front to back through the entire thickness of the leaves or sections. Distinguished from 'saddle stitching.'

Side-notes See MARGINAL NOTES.

Sidehead A caption at the side of a printed text page.

Signature 1. In bookwork, the first page of each section bears a distinguishing letter or figure called 'signature' which proceeds in order throughout the sections of a book, and thus acts as a guide in gathering. The letters J, V and W are ordinarily omitted, following the general practice in manuscripts and early printed books of using the Latin alphabet in which I stands for both I and J, V for both U and V, and there is no W. When the quire includes additional sheets or a portion of a sheet (inset), these also are signed to indicate how they are to be folded and inserted. In former times, the signature mark was frequently given on several leaves at the beginning of the quire thus: A, Aii, Aiii, etc. 2. The printed sheet or sheets so marked whether unfolded, or folded and quired (*Introd. Typogr., A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Signature title An abbreviated form of the title of a book, given on the same line as the signature, but toward the inner margin of the first leaf of a gathering (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Signed page The first page of a section, the one bearing the signature (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Silking A means of repairing or preserving paper by the application of silk chiffon to one or both sides of the paper (see also LAMINATION).

Silverfish A small silvery-white hexapod resembling the centipede which feeds on the starchy filler of paper, cloth and paste and is highly destructive to paper. It seems to favour dampness and is found most often where damp and mildew are present (*Book. Gloss.*).

Simplified cataloguing That kind of cataloguing in which the forms of entry and headings are curtailed, and unessential entries omitted. Simplified cataloguing is commonly adopted as a measure of economy, eliminating the necessity for time-consuming bibliographic research, clerical or typing work, and requiring less catalogue space. It may also be adopted to suit the catalogue to the character

of the library (especially in the case of children's libraries).

In its commonest form the catalogue entries omit unessential matter and mention of prefaces, etc., from the title, the place of publication and publisher's name from the imprint, most individual specifications of illustrative matter and the size of the book from the collation, and annotations. Personal author headings are given with initials instead of full forenames, and distinguishing dates of birth and death are omitted except for the obvious requirements of names such as Smith, Jones, etc. Whilst every book is given a main entry in this simplified form, added entries under editors, illustrators, translators, titles, series or forms may be omitted.

Few libraries catalogue their stocks in the fullness demanded by strict adherence to the Anglo-American code, but in considering the adoption of a rigorous policy of simplified cataloguing there lies the very real danger that the value of the catalogue as the most efficient key to the stock may be impaired. Indeed the initial saving of time sometimes proves to be a false economy when in subsequent years re-cataloguing and the expansion of headings may become necessary in order to distinguish the authors and entries sufficiently.

Sinkage Space left at the top of a page extra to the regular margins, e.g. at the new chapter.

SINTO Since 1933, libraries of industrial firms, research associations and other institutions in the Sheffield area have participated in a co-operative organization designed to make mutually available, through the intermediation of the Sheffield (Public) Science and Commerce Library, the resources of all. The basis of the scheme, a union list of periodicals held by constituent members, is kept up to date with additions transcribed from accessions lists provided by contributors, and was completely revised in 1955. Although the bulk of loans are made from the Sheffield City Library's resources, the availability of the reserve of rare material in the files of contributors is a valuable asset to the scheme, which also has served to break down some of the mutual suspicion which beclouds much industrial activity. This pioneer among

SIZE (CATALOGUING)

cooperative organizations has been helped by the concentration of Sheffield industry in a limited technical field—that of high-alloy steels.

Constituent members increased in number from 18 in 1933 to 41 in 1955. Recent developments have included the organization of a translations service for specialized material and the deposit in Sheffield Science and Commerce Library of files of discarded periodicals. The volume of recorded traffic is not great, amounting to some 2,700 or so items a year, but all of these are extremely specialized in nature, and there are many unrecorded loans, once locations have been established. The organization serves additional needs in providing in its Annual Meeting a forum for the discussion of mutual problems (e.g. the accessibility of university theses or American research reports) and, in the Sheffield City Libraries, a joint channel of communication with other bodies (e.g. the Patent Office, SCONUL or the United States Atomic Energy Commission).

Lamb, J. P. 'The interchange of technical publications in Sheffield.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1950, 2, 41-48.

Supplemented by annual reports, e.g.: *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1953, 55, 406; 1954, 56, 347; 1955, 57, 312.

J. F. W. B.

Size (cataloguing) In cataloguing, the vertical measurement of a book. The width is not usually given in a catalogue entry, save for books of unusual shape, or rare items. The *A.A. Code* directs that the size of a book is to be measured in centimetres, and specified to the nearest half-centimetre.

Size (paper) A mixture of gelatine, alum and formaldehyde into which paper is dipped after coming from the machine (tub-sizing). Machine-sizing is the process of passing machine-made paper through a bath of size before going on to the preliminary finishing rollers. The former process imparts greater strength to the paper than the latter. The purpose of sizing is to produce a superior surface and to repel water.

Sliding shelves See ROLLER SHELVES.

Slip The part of the sewing cord or tape which projects beyond the back of a book after sewing, and which is afterwards attached to the boards.

Slip proof See GALLEY PROOF.

Slip sheet A sheet of paper placed between freshly printed sheets to prevent offset.

Slipcase A box designed to protect a book, covering it so that its back only is exposed. Also called 'slide case,' 'slip-in case,' 'open-back case.'

Shape Either: Oblong, where the width of the page or book exceeds the height. Or: Upright, where the height of the page or book exceeds the width.

The head-to-tail measurement must always be quoted first in speaking of the book-size; thus $7\frac{1}{2} \times 5$ in. indicates an upright shape and $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ in. indicates an oblong shape.

Sloping shelves The lowest shelf of a bookcase arranged in a tilted position, so that titles of books can be read more easily. Originated in England by L. S. Jast.

Slug The line of metal cast by a type-setting machine, e.g. Linotype.

Small capitals Upper case letters about $\frac{2}{3}$ the size of ordinary upper case letters. Indicated by double underlining and abbreviated to s.c.; also referred to as small caps.

Small paper copy or edition A copy, or an edition, of a book printed on paper of smaller size than that used for a large paper edition of the same work, the usual or trade edition.

Small pica An obsolete size of type about 11 point.

Smashing machine See NIPPING MACHINE.

Sobriquet A fanciful name, not a personal or baptismal name, by which a person may be known; a nickname. A few individuals, chiefly artists, are universally known by sobriquet, and thus entry may be made for these in a catalogue under the sobriquet provided this is not one of the individual's forenames (*A.A.*: 39). e.g.

Correggio, i.e. Antonio Allegri, known as.

Society of Public Librarians Founded in 1895 as a forum of discussion for the more senior municipal librarians of London and the Home Counties: activities ceased c. 1925. Its first honorary secretary, C. W. F. Goss, was an opponent of 'open access,' and in criticizing Greenwood's *Library year-book* for 1897, containing strong contributions from Brown and Greenwood in favour of open access, the Society aligned itself unmistakably with the conservative forces of the day.

G.J.

Soft-ground etching A method of etching which produces soft lines similar to those of pencil drawing by the use of wax ground covered with a transfer paper on which the design is drawn. When the paper is removed some of the ground adheres, leaving a broken line.

Solid See SET SOLID.

Solid gilt Edges gilded 'in the round,' i.e. after the book has been rounded.

Sorts An individual type character is called a sort.

Sound libraries The invention of the gramophone record, magnetic tape and sound film enabled sound to be recorded and stored. The simultaneous development of radio and 'talkies' generated an enormous quantity of controlled sound much of which was recorded on one of these inventions.

As a consequence collections of recorded sound have been built up by organizations associated with the work. The British Broadcasting Corporation have a large collection of sound effects, broadcast programmes and, of course, music. Film production companies who use sound effects also have libraries of such effects.

Two problems arise in handling such material—first, the method of storage, second, the method of cataloguing.

It is the opinion of the British Broadcasting Corporation that the most convenient form of recording is the gramophone record. In addition to the disc used to provide the recording a matrix is kept from which further copies can be made. Film companies use all methods but most usually film as this is the

media with which they are finally concerned. Magnetic tape is gaining ground rapidly as a method of recording sound but its use for storing sound over a period of time is developing more slowly. The permanence of the sound recorded in this way appears to be open to question and ordinary magnetic tape is an extremely inconvenient material from the handling point of view.

The cataloguing and classification of sound is usually done on an alphabetical system. Music can be grouped by types and further subdivided by individual composers: additional references should be given for the performers.

Sound effects are a more intractable problem. They can be listed under alphabetical headings but if they are to be fully exploited a classification by type is also required. Sound effects can be used to create atmosphere as successfully as a well-chosen visual, but if they are to be so used, good classification and skilled librarians are essential (incidentally, the skill is in the use of sound rather than the library practice). A particular example of a creative user of sound is Pierre Henri of the French Broadcasting Organization who is responsible for the development of electronic sound.

In Great Britain, the British Institute for Recorded Sound, 38 Russell Square, London, W.C.2, exists to promote the study and use of recorded sound in all its aspects.

An interesting account of animated sound tracks and a filing system developed for use with them is given in 'Animated sound tracks,' by N. McLaren, *Science and Film*, 1955, 4, No. 4, 18-36.

Source index A card index to sources of unusual and elusive information, which, in addition to listing publications, may refer to individuals and organizations. More common in special libraries (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Space A thin piece of metal shaped like, but less high than, a piece of type used to separate words.

Space lines Strips of brass used in place of leads.

Space to fill Surplus space left owing to insufficient copy having been supplied.

SPACEBANDS

Spacebands Automatic justifying devices in a line-casting machine in the form of wedge shaped pieces of metal, used to separate words.

Special classification See CLASSIFICATION, SPECIAL.

Special edition 1. An edition of a standard work or the works of a standard author, re-issued in a new form, sometimes with introduction, notes, appendix and illustrations, and generally having a distinctive name. 2. An edition that differs from a regular edition by some distinctive feature, as better paper and binding, or the addition of illustrations. 3. An enlarged issue of a newspaper, usually devoted to a particular subject. Also called 'special number.' 4. A library edition (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Special number A single issue or a supplementary section of a serial or a newspaper, devoted to a special subject, with or without serial numbering. Also called 'special issue' and if celebrating an anniversary 'anniversary issue' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Special sorts Types not usually supplied in a fount, and obtained at need. Music types, foreign diphthongs, etc., are included.

Special title-page A title-page, usually with imprint, special to a single part of a larger work, or to a complete work issued or re-issued as part of a collection, as series, or a serial publication (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Species See PREDICABLES.

Specific cross-reference A reference in a catalogue to a specific book, e.g.

Caldecott, Randolph, *illus.*

see

Irving, William. Bracebridge Hall. 1877.

This kind of reference is not generally used nowadays, having been ousted by the advent of unit cataloguing in which added entries are used instead. The catalogues of the British Museum library, being of the printed book type, use specific cross-references.

Specific entry The registry of a book in a catalogue under a subject heading expressing the precise subject in direct terms, as distinguished from entry under the name of the subject class which includes the exact subject, e.g. the entry of a book on the elephant under

Elephant, not under *Zoology*. The principle of specific entry governs the making of subject entries in the dictionary and alphabetical subject catalogues, as opposed to the principle of class entry governing the construction of the alphabetical-classed catalogue.

Specific reference A catalogue reference which specifies the exact heading to which reference should be made, as distinguished from a general reference, e.g.

Poisons see Toxicology

Statesmen see also Diplomats.

Spine See BACK.

Spine title The title of a book as lettered on its spine, often a short or partial form of the full title as given on the title-page.

Split-board A plain or laminated board, the back edge of which is split to receive the sewing tapes and/or fabric hinge.

Sprinkled edges Book edges on which, after being cut smooth, colour has been sprinkled or sprayed for the purpose of decoration and also to minimize the effect of dust and finger-marks.

Square Width exceeding three-fourths of height as 'square octavo.'

Square back See FLAT BACK.

Square brackets [] Rectangular marks, used in cataloguing to enclose information supplied by the cataloguer and to indicate unnumbered pages in the collation.

Square corner A book corner in which a piece of the covering material is cut out at the corner so that one turn-in may neatly overlap the other.

Squares The marginal difference between the page edges and the edge of the case or binding.

Stab-stitch In bookbinding, to stitch with wire or thread, with long stitches, near the back fold and through the entire bulk. The great disadvantage of this method is that the book will not stay open flat. Generally used only in stationery binding.

Stabilization A process which renders a photocopy on silver halide paper relatively

stable to light. A stabilizer may be used instead of the normal fixer when a photocopy is required quickly. The print will last for several years if kept away from light. The application of a stabilizer to a print after developing renders the unexposed and undeveloped silver salts colourless. No washing of the print is necessary.

Staff enclosure That part of a public department in a library which is restricted to the use of the staff, usually associated with circulation work.

Staff, public libraries See PUBLIC LIBRARY LAW.

Stained edges Book edges that, after cutting smooth, have been stained with colour. Different colours are sometimes used to distinguish the different sections of a reference book, as for instance in some directories.

Stained top The top edge of a book, stained a uniform colour, as distinguished from 'sprinkled edge,' 'marbled edge,' etc.

Standard size card A card sized 5×3 in. ($7.5 \text{ cm} \times 12.5 \text{ cm}$ in continental countries) generally used in libraries for making catalogues and other administrative records.

Standard stack See SHELVING.

Standing Conference of National and University Libraries The Standing Conference of National and University Libraries was founded in September, 1950, as it was felt that there was a place in the organization of British libraries for an independent body concerning itself with the work and interest of the large libraries without conflicting with the activities of the Library Association and its University and Research Section. Membership is limited to 21 university libraries, six national libraries (including the British Museum, Science Museum and Natural History Libraries), three college libraries, the British Library of Political and Economic Science and the John Rylands Library, each represented by its chief officer with additional representatives from the British Museum, Oxford and Cambridge.

The Conference has a committee of six members, a Chairman and an Honorary

Secretary. It has no full-time secretariat nor does it maintain any permanent headquarters.

During the past five years a number of subjects have been discussed, courses have been inaugurated and various bibliographical and palaeographical projects have been sponsored. Summer courses in bibliography have been held at Oxford and a course in binding at University College, London. An index to the holdings of *Short title catalogue* books in British libraries is being prepared by Mr. D. Ramage, and Mr. Neil Ker is engaged in the collection of material for a catalogue of medieval manuscripts in libraries or institutions for which no published description exists.

The Conference has prepared standards for the regulations relating to the availability of university theses which have been accepted by most universities. It has arranged for exhibitions of foreign books to tour British university libraries, has suggested amendments, which were later approved by the National Central Library, to the *Recommendations on library co-operation*, and has attempted to obtain alterations to the Copyright Bill, affecting photocopying by libraries.

Subcommittees have been set up to consider co-operation in acquisitions, the export of books and manuscripts and various problems relevant to manuscripts. The Subcommittee on Manuscripts has undertaken the duties of the National Committee on Palaeography and is sponsoring the periodical publication of a list of the non-historical manuscript acquisitions of British libraries and hopes to prepare an index or a series of indexes of holdings of literary manuscripts.

Other matters considered by the Conference include the high cost of German medical and scientific periodicals, deposit libraries, the instruction of students in the use of the library, the qualifications and establishment of the staffs of national libraries, the acquisition of Russian books, new library buildings and library binderies.

X.W.H.

Standing type Type from which an impression has been taken, but which is not distributed pending decision as to a new printing.

Star signature A signature indicating an off-cut (part of a sheet) or cancel distinguished by

START

an asterisk placed with the signature letter or figure of the main part of the sheet.

Start 1. A section of leaves that has not been properly secured in the back of a book and hence projects beyond the rest. 2. A break between the signatures of a book, frequently caused by forcing a book open while the leaves are held tightly (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

State (engraving) An impression taken from a plate at any stage in perfecting. Various states include Publication State; Open Letter Proof. An early impression is one of the first copies taken, and is consequently prized as representing the best condition of the plate.

Steel engraving An engraving worked on a steel plate rather than a copper plate.

Stem See SHANK.

Stencil A waxed fibrous sheet used in duplicating processes. The fibrous nature of the sheet makes it possible to 'cut' the stencil by typing without a ribbon. The fibres in the stencil prevent the typewriter keys punching out portions of the stencil when such letters as 'O' are typed (see also DIAPOSITIVE STENCILS).

Stereotype plates A printing surface cast in soft metal from a heat-dried papier mâché mould which has been taken from type. Used especially in newspaper work; abbreviated as stereo.

Stet 'Let the matter stand'; i.e. cancel the correction. Indicated by dots under the word, and the word Stet in the margin.

Stevens, Henry, of Vermont (1819-86). An American by birth, became Panizzi's chief agent in purchasing Americana for the British Museum. Contributed to the International Conference of Librarians in London in 1877 a paper calling for 'photobibliography', or the use of reduced photographic facsimiles of title-pages on catalogue slips of standard size so as to supply a rapid and bibliographically impeccable catalogue entry for any book—thus in a sense anticipating Arthur Fremont Rider's advocacy of the 'microcard' 70 years later. (Boase, *Modern English bibliography*, vol. 3.)

G.J.

Stick The small adjustable hand tray used by the hand compositor when setting or forming type into lines as he picks the characters from the cases.

Stigmonym The use of dots in a book as a substitute for the name of the author; a form of pseudonym. Where the author's name cannot be identified such books as are published under stigmonym are catalogued under their titles.

Stipple engraving The process comprises the penetration of an acid-resist ground by a series of dots made by the artist to a given design and completed by etching the metal base. No lines are drawn, but tools such as roulettes are used for background effects.

Stippling 1. In paper, a roughened finish, also called pebbling. 2. In printing and art an engraving process in which gradation of light and shade is produced by dots made by piercing the ground with a special roulette.

Stitching In bookbinding, the fastening together of the leaves by means of thread or wire, each single passage of the threaded needle or wire going through the bulk of the volume. (A generic term, including side stitching and saddle stitching.) To be distinguished from 'sewing' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Stock 1. In printing, paper or other material to be printed. 2. In paper-making, half-stuff or pulp that is ready for the paper machine (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Stone See IMPOSING SURFACE.

Stop bath An acid medium into which films or prints may be placed after developing, in order to prevent further developing action, and to prevent stains.

Straight matter Text uninterrupted by tables, special setting or inserted blocks.

Strawboard A coarse, yellow millboard, made from straw; it is used for the covers of books.

Strike through Penetration of the type impression from the verso to the recto of a page due to improper pressure or faulty make ready.

Strip in The combination of several negatives preparatory to rephotography in the making of a line or half-tone block.

Stub 1. The remaining portion of a leaf cut out of a volume. 2. Guards sewn into the book, so that folded maps or other material of extra bulk can be incorporated into the book without distorting its shape. Also known as 'compensation guard.'

Stuff The pulp in the paper-maker's vat prior to being taken up on the mould.

Style sheet 1. A guide to house style. 2. A list of selected type sizes, arrangement, etc., planned for a given publication.

Subcommittees See COMMITTEES.

Sub-entry In indexing, the part of the entry following the entry-word or heading, i.e. the whole entry minus the entry-word or heading. (*Libr. Gloss.*).

For example—

English dialects
drama
fiction
language.

Subdivision See CLASSIFICATION; DIVISION.

Subheading A second, or a later, part of a subject heading, added to divide the entries under a subject; also a second part of an author heading for a corporate body, or the name of a ministry or government department following the name of a country (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

For example—

Art—Bibliographies	Great Britain. Air Ministry.
Art—Dictionaries	Great Britain. Board of Trade.
Art—Essays	Great Britain. Ministry of Food.
Art—History	Great Britain. Ministry of Works.

Subject analytical entry An analytical entry in a catalogue for part of a work or for an article contained in a collection, made under the subject of the part or article analysed, e.g.

National Health Service
Dunn, Charles.

The National Health Service. (*In* Johnson, C. H. A short history of preventive medicine, 1952, Chap. 12.)

Subject authority file A list of subject headings and subject references selected for use in a catalogue, compiled by the cataloguers for use in the cataloguing department as a substitute for, or additional to, a general printed list of subject headings (such as Sears' or the Library of Congress list).

For ease of interfiling and keeping the list current it is usually compiled on cards or slips, vertically filed. For each new heading a slip is established, giving the exact form of heading, together with some or all of the following information—

Scope notes, defining the heading and stating how, when and where it is to be used.

Synonymous terms, opposites, obsolete terms, etc., from which *see* references have been made.

The broader, more comprehensive headings from which *see also* references have been made.

The co-ordinate related headings from which and to which *see also* references have been made.

The subordinate subjects to which *see also* references have been made.

The source of the heading.

A citation of the work which occasioned the establishment of a new or unorthodox heading.

Subject bibliography A list of material about a given subject, whether the subject be a person, place or thing (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Subject card A catalogue card bearing a subject entry.

Subject catalogue 1. A catalogue consisting of subject entries only. 2. A loose term designating any catalogue arranged by subjects, whether alphabetical or classified.

Subject cataloguing That phase of the process of cataloguing which concerns itself with the subject matter of books, hence, includes classification and the determination of subject headings (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Subject classification (of James Duff Brown) This holds a unique place among classification schemes. It is the only general scheme of any moment to be compiled by a United Kingdom librarian and is a mixture of ideas, some of which have developed well, some of which have developed badly. It is used in about 40 British libraries, mostly medium or small ones of long standing. It is not now adopted by new libraries for reasons given below.

History Brown made two attempts before compiling this scheme: 1. The Quinn-Brown Classification, in collaboration with John Henry Quinn, in 1894; an inadequate scheme even for those days. 2. The Adjustable Classification, which extended and improved the first, but still suffered from inadequate classes, an incomplete index and an arithmetical notation that provided for insertion of new subjects at gaps only.

The mistakes apparent in his own and Dewey's Decimal Classification caused Brown to try again and to produce in 1906 the Subject Classification. A second edition, revised by the author, was published shortly after his death in 1914, by his nephew James D. Stewart.

Its use was continued by most of the libraries which adopted it originally and a third revised edition was published in 1939 by Stewart. Note is taken of suggestions for revision and a fourth edition is contemplated.

The scheme may be seen in operation at Bermondsey, Ilford and other public libraries. Lack of extensive funds and of a standing revision committee have contributed greatly to the difficulties encountered in keeping the scheme alive, but more has been done to perpetuate it than the Expansive Classification of C. A. Cutter in rather similar circumstances.

Principles and outline It is basically simple to understand and reasonably well proportioned, but suffers from over-indulgence in a personal theory by the author which results in many classes being ill-placed for modern needs.

Two important principles are employed—1. 'The constant or concrete subject should be preferred to the more general standpoint or occasional subject.' 2. 'Every class is arranged in a systematic order of scientific progression, as far as it seemed possible to maintain it; while applications directly derived from a

science or other theoretical base, have been placed with that science or base.'

Brown protests like other classifiers, that practical usefulness must take precedence over theory, but a perusal of the schedules has caused his critics to decide that he has, in fact, pushed his theory too far.

The 'concrete subject' has tended to become the 'object' written about, rather than the subject of the book. The author has attempted to make a *one place* scheme, avoiding the network of relationships to be found in Dewey, with but partial success. Books are ideas in relationship.

The placing of derived subjects with their parents is admirable in many instances and has been adopted in the most modern schemes but, carried to excess, it separates groups of subjects which are sought together and used together. Brown brings together in practice subdivisions which are only remotely connected. A look at the detailed schedules will make this clear.

The order of classes is based on the idea that everything derives from a definite source and is briefly: 1. Matter. 2. Life. 3. Mind. 4. Record. This expands into—

Table of main classes

A	Generalia	
B-D	Physical Science	Matter and Force
E-F	Biological Science	
G-H	Ethnology and Medicine	Life
I	Economic Biology	
J-K	Philosophy and Religion	Mind
L	Social and Political Science	
M	Language and Literature	Record
N	Literary Forms	
O-W	History, Geography	
X	Biography	

There is no useful or fine arts class as such. Language and literature are combined at M-N, history and geography at O-W.

Class A. Generalia is unusual as it contains subjects which 'qualify or pervade' others, such as education, logic, mathematics, graphic and plastic arts and general science—subjects usually considered major divisions of other classes or main classes in themselves.

The index is specific. As the scheme attempts to provide one place for a subject in all its relationships there is normally one index

entry. This is not always possible, as a look at the entries for children, church and colour will show.

The notation consists of a single capital letter of the alphabet followed by numbers which can be treated decimally if required. The base is reasonably broad and well-allocated, bearing in mind the date of compilation. Letters A-X, including O, are used, Y may be used for Special Local Collections, Z is spare.

Auxiliary tables The 'Categorical tables: table of categories, forms, etc., for the subdivision of subjects,' are numbered from .0 to .980 (ed. 3); .0, .00, .01, .02 and .1 to .980 (excluding .37, .302, .694, .695, .698) are used, giving 979 standpoints and subjects which may be combined with any subject number in the main tables, e.g. M520.877, English grammar. The dot is a separating device, not a decimal point. While many of these categorical tables cannot be combined sensibly with many of the subjects, some can always combine with some. They are a pioneer attempt at synthetic combination, a problem which still exercises the minds of classifiers, although more elaborate systems have been devised, notably by Bliss and Ranganathan.

An alphabetical index is provided.

National numbers Subjects may be qualified to show locality by adding the numbers from classes O-W or, where necessary, language numbers, e.g. L185W328, Freemasonry in Texas.

Composite books may be classed by combining class marks, e.g. C200 + 300, Heat and Sound, unless a heading is already provided, e.g. C000, Electricity and Magnetism.

Tables of author and date numbers are also given.

Bliss, H. E. *The organization of knowledge in libraries*. 2nd ed., 1939. Chapter XIII. Pt. 1.

Brown, J. D. *Subject classification*. 3rd ed., 1939. Introduction.

Sayers, W. C. B. *A manual of classification*. 3rd ed., 1955. Chapter XVII.

E. R. J. H.

Subject entry 1. An entry in a catalogue or a bibliography under a heading that indicates the subject of the work entered (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

2. In an index, an entry relating to some subject or distinguished from one beginning with the name of a person (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Subject heading A word or group of words expressing a subject, under which as heading, entries for all works on that subject are filed in a catalogue or bibliography.

Subject series A number of books, ordinarily not reprints, dealing with different phases of a single subject or with a special field of literature, usually by different individual authors, uniform in textual and physical characteristics and published by a single publisher (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Subject specialization *Purposes* Local autonomy in book selection is essential to effective librarianship, but results in gaps in overall provision. There is a tendency in public libraries, accentuated by attenuated resources, towards under-representation of expensive and unbound materials, books on minority interests and those outside the usual book trade channels—pamphlets, importations from overseas, private and Government publications, besides music, periodicals and maps—while in special libraries concentration on essentials leads to mutual neglect of materials on marginal subjects. The fluctuations of demand, and the vagaries of publishers, all add to the problems of the selector. An item rejected on publication acquires a subsequent cachet when it is out of print; of three books on similar subjects issued at one time one, initially rejected, is specifically requested at a later date. Reliance on the inter-loan agreements has been proved an ineffectual guarantee of provision; on average, throughout the country, approximately 25 per cent of all items requested are not locatable within the Region originating the enquiry. It is also known that borrowing a book from outside one's own Region adds approximately one month to the time taken to obtain it.

To meet these problems there have developed 'subject coverage' schemes of varying form in five Regions in recent years. Three of these incorporate provision for co-operative storage on a subject basis, which serves both the need for guaranteed provision and at the same time enables the saving of storage space

SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION

through the prevention of wasteful duplication, checks the unnecessary growth of libraries and enables stock weeding to be undertaken with confident boldness. Subject specialization, coupled with co-operative storage, extends the range of total provision, ensuring that at least one copy of works within defined limits shall be obtained and made permanently available; it brings all such resources into use throughout a wider area; reduces the demands on the National Central Library, and tends to reduce the average time taken to obtain requested items. It also enables the smaller library to play a proportionate part in inter-library loans, and helps the conscientious public library book selector to avoid creating a demand for the unworthy book, since it gives him confidence that on request it will be available on loan. A useful additional feature of subject specialization is that the individual with a minority interest is enabled to obtain his requirements, even though he lives in a small community.

History At the Library Association Conference of 1913, Councillor A. H. Garstang, of Southport, propounded a scheme for 'co-operative specializing by municipal libraries,' but the time was not ripe, and no further mention of the idea is seen in print until Lt.-Col. Mitchell stated in 1924 that 'the librarian of one Lancashire town reported that an attempt had been made with two neighbouring towns to arrange that each shall specialize in one or more specific subjects, interest in which is common to all three. Thus, assuming nucleus collections in all three, one specializes in cotton manufacture, another in engineering, another in paper-making. By means of exchange of catalogues and telephone communication, readers in all three towns have reasonable access to three full collections which in the aggregate the three towns could not severally afford to buy.'

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust report for 1925, in paragraph 54, envisaged co-operative book buying—'possibly in time'—and in 1928, Captain Wright declared that it was desirable 'to increase the selection of books available by avoiding undue duplication of expensive books. This might be achieved in the more densely populated library regions by specialization, and in the smaller by joint

book selection. Quarterly meetings of the specializing libraries should be adequate to decide: 1. What books should be bought. 2. What duplication was necessary. 3. In which libraries copies should be located.' A measure of co-operation in this field had been put into force in Cornwall in 1927.

The first full-scale implementation of the idea was the Metropolitan Special Collections Scheme (1948) which aimed at coverage combined with local control. Under it the 29 libraries divided the Dewey Decimal Classification classes into 47 sections and accepted one or more each. Participating libraries undertook to spend at least £200 per annum on books in allotted subjects, in addition to normal purchases; to include periodicals, foreign and older books in their collections; to accept appropriate books withdrawn from other libraries, and to store permanently all acquisitions within their allocated subjects. The minimum standard aimed at was that of the large provincial city.

It was understood that constituent members would make contact with London's special libraries in their respective fields, would obtain appropriate subject bibliographies and would notify specific books in their field not obtained. No publicity was to be undertaken for five years. These conditions, inevitably, received varying interpretations, but the most enthusiastic spent up to three times their minimum commitment, and added up to 100 periodicals to their permanent files, and it is estimated that £9-10,000 worth of advanced, specialist material is obtained annually under the scheme. The ultimate expectation is that there will be special departments set up in each library, and that students will find it worth while to travel across London to use these 'subject departments' of the London 'Region.'

Two years later the South-Eastern Regional Library System adopted a parallel, but different scheme. Under it the 83 participants accepted a more closely defined obligation to purchase all new British books (excluding certain subjects and categories) at an estimated annual expenditure of 7s. per 1,000 of population, according to a calculation of the annual cost of books in each subject. An arbitrary allocation

of subjects—at least two to each library—was linked with the newly-published *British national bibliography*, whose placings librarians accepted as the basis of allotment. Books costing more than £6 or less than 6s. were to be obtained at the librarian's discretion.

In April, 1953, Welsh librarians entered into an agreement to cover certain subjects which they themselves volunteered to accept, omitting those fields represented by special libraries in the area, those categories already excluded under the Regional Library System and items costing more than £5 or under 10s. A year after this, the North-Western Region adopted a scheme containing features of the London and South-Eastern agreements. With 75 participants, close division of subjects was feasible; coverage of British books was the aim, there being no upper or lower price limit, although librarians might declare their inability to obtain an item over £6, when a larger library would be called upon to undertake its provision on behalf of the Region. Withdrawn books are offered to the appropriate specializing library for storage. The estimated cost for libraries is 23s. per 1,000 of population served.

The Northern Region's co-operative coverage takes the form of quarterly consideration by the Executive of a list of unbought items, and their supply by mutual agreement. In the East Midlands, in 1955, some public libraries 'declared an interest' in certain subjects. Supplementary co-operative agreements cover the provision of out-of-print fiction in the London, Northern and Scottish Regions, sets of plays in London, the North-Western and East Midlands regions, and foreign literature in the East Midlands and London.

Besides these geographical agreements there are long-standing arrangements between the London medical libraries and the law libraries of the University of London, defining spheres of influence and sharing the burden of periodical filing. The Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation of the Association of University Teachers Subcommittee on Background Material, has reached agreement on the co-operative provision of unlocated desiderata among 17th and 18th century publications. In the field of technology, the

Sheffield Scheme co-ordinates the filing of periodicals between specialist steel-manufacturing concerns, while in North-West London CICRIS stimulates and guides a profitable association of public libraries and industrial firms.

Among special libraries the Aslib subject groups in aeronautics, engineering, textiles, food and agriculture, chemicals, fuel and power, and economics, have concentrated on compiling union lists of periodicals, but also help to frame their members' acquisitions policy in the light of colleagues' practice.

The future In this most promising of current library developments lie great possibilities; Britain is a long way from complete coverage of loanable copies of required material. Future trends may include expansion of the regional agreements to cover periodicals and foreign literature, within a national framework; the co-operative provision of music scores, including sets for choral and orchestral works, and closer links between special and public libraries sharing a common special subject interest in order to share in the provision of the less-frequently used material, such as overseas Government publications, house journals, trade catalogues, etc., and to participate in the preservation of archives. As the frontiers of knowledge expand, it will become increasingly desirable that specializing librarians be called upon to answer subject enquiries, and thus bear out the pronouncement of a leading article in *Nature* (1937, 139, 429-30): 'The custodian of books has come to be recognized for what he really is—a custodian of information.'

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SUBJECT-WORD ENTRY

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J. F. W. B.

Subject-word entry Entry under a word of the title indicative of the subject, e.g. Archaeology, Making a start in.

Subscription and circulating libraries

Although there may have been more or less informal arrangements of earlier date for sharing the costs of book purchase between a number of persons, the library subscription, as such, did not come into being until the late 17th and early 18th centuries. London booksellers appear to have been first in the field—Francis Kirkman was advertising in 1661 that his stock of books were to be 'sold, or read for reasonable considerations.' Little is known of such London book-borrowing facilities, and the scene then shifts to Edinburgh, where Allan Ramsay started his library about 1726. During the next decade similar beginnings were made at Bath, Scarborough, Bristol and Birmingham.

London's first circulating library on a larger scale (and one of the first to be so called) was Thomas Wright's, probably started in 1740 in Exeter Exchange, whence he issued a catalogue of 'several thousand volumes' in 1742. These commercially operated libraries increased steadily from that date, mainly in the cities and larger towns at first—the spas and watering-places especially. By the end of the century the wider reading public of the period were said to have called into being no fewer than 1,000 circulating libraries. No little part in these developments was played by William Lane of the famous Minerva Press, publisher, librarian and promoter of libraries.

The first few decades of the new century brought no startling changes. The larger London (and provincial) libraries, then, as now, had country subscribers to whom books were dispatched by carrier. But when the

railways revolutionized communications the old-fashioned libraries were not alert to seize new opportunities, as was Charles Edward Mudie. In 1842 he started his large-scale provision of the latest books at the rate of a guinea a year for one exchangeable volume. Supported by extensive advertising, and possessed of a flair for gauging middle-class reading tastes, he had moved to Oxford Street by the 1850's, and was placing advance orders for upwards of 2,000 copies of the outstanding books of the day. Success continued, and in due course branches were opened in Birmingham, Manchester and elsewhere. Within 20 years of Mudie's debut W. H. Smith established his railway bookstalls—and with them the nationwide library business still operated by the firm. The year that W. H. Smith's transferred their business from bookstalls to bookshops (1905) also saw the Times Book Club established. Boots' Booklover's Library, founded at the turn of the century, shares with Smith's the advantage of multiple service points. Other names have since been added to the 'Big Four,' but, of them, Mudie's is no longer with us—having failed in 1937 after being a household word for three generations.

Alongside the development of the commercial circulating libraries another type of library came into existence from about the middle of the 18th century, namely the proprietary subscription library. In the 1740's the dissenting minister, Samuel Fancourt, was running his so-called circulating library in Crane Court, Fleet Street—but the subscribers were also shareholders, and the direction was in the hands of trustees elected from among their number. Such subscription libraries were often called 'permanent' libraries, to distinguish them from the book clubs with their system of dispersing the books among members after their first rotation. Some mention should be made of the Spalding Gentlemen's Society (founded 1709-10, and with a fine library to this day) and similar learned societies, of which the libraries were a prominent feature. The earliest known provincial subscription library proper was Liverpool's Lyceum Library (1757-1944), and a number were in existence by 1780, mainly in Yorkshire and Lancashire—but including

Bristol (1772-1893), and Birmingham (1779). More and more of these libraries were established, until by about 1825 nearly all towns of consequence had their 'public' libraries—as they were often called. The best of them provided a really good representation of the books of the day, and basic works of the past—with fiction allowed only sparingly.

Surprisingly, but perhaps because of good service given by the larger circulating libraries, London had lagged behind in the matter of subscription libraries. Fancourt's library was discontinued some years before his death in 1768; later there was a 'London Library,' also a 'Westminster Library,' apparently short-lived after their early 19th century amalgamation. It was not until 1841 that the London Library was opened as a much-needed lending library of scholarly books. The main projector had been Carlyle, and the committee appointed at the first public meeting called to discuss proposals had included also Gladstone and Monkton Milnes. The Library moved to its present site in 1845, and has had an uninterrupted career of service and expansion. Not the least of its services to scholarship in general (and other libraries in particular) has been the printing of its catalogues. The current edition of the author catalogue includes books added to 1950 (in 5 volumes, 1913-53) and of the Subject Index includes books added to 1953 (in 4 volumes, 1909-55). The present entrance fee and annual subscription to the library are four and six guineas respectively.

The period from the mid-19th century onwards has seen the gradual decline of the provincial subscription libraries. They were assailed on the one hand by the competition of Messrs. Mudie and Smith, and on the other by the rise of the public libraries. These latter were first made possible in England and Wales by the Public Libraries Act of 1850, extended to Scotland and Ireland in 1853. The general run of subscription libraries gained their support in large measure from their circulation of the popular literature of the day—and as time went on many came to rely largely on institutional borrowing in bulk from Mudie's. These libraries could not continue indefinitely as little better than clearing houses to save their subscriber's

postages. The spread of public libraries gave the *coup de grâce* to many—the municipality sometimes taking over an existing library at the cost of paying its debts. However, many of the libraries survived, and libraries of 18th century foundation exist to-day at Belfast (1788), Birmingham (1779), Bradford (1774), Leeds (1768), Liverpool (Athenaeum, 1799), Newcastle upon Tyne (Literary and Philosophical Society, 1793), Norwich (1784) and elsewhere; there are others not many years younger, which with them rank, in the richness of their collections, among the great libraries of the country.

The libraries which are the subject of this article have been mostly general in scope—leaving particular subjects, professions and trades to their appropriate associations and societies. Nevertheless there have been certain specialities which have engaged the attention of subscription and commercial librarians. The Birmingham Library had a section, with a special subscription, for scientific books—introduced by that most library-conscious 18th century savant, Joseph Priestley. Nor were the large London circulating libraries of the period backward in providing books of this character. To-day, and from its foundation in 1852, H. K. Lewis's Medical, Scientific and Technical Lending Library gives an invaluable service to private and institutional subscribers. From the end of the 18th century foreign books became more generally accessible; subscribers set up a Foreign Circulating Library at Leeds in 1795, and Manchester's Foreign Library dates from 1830 (under the aegis of the Public Library since 1903). Commercial provision, particularly in London, has been continuous, notable examples being Hookham's French department in the 1790's, Mudie's large foreign section and the International Book Club to-day.

From their start the place of the lending libraries in the world of books has always been secure, though not always free from controversy. As early as 1739 we have an author's (George Cheyne) complaint of the 'inexpressible disadvantage' of his books being lent by Mr. Leake of Bath. Only recently the author John Brophy's suggestion for a penny-per-loan royalty received wide notice; it features—though considered

impractical of adoption—in the Society of Authors' 1953 manifesto *Critical times for authors*. The private censorship long exercised by Mudie's and Smith's came under fire in the 1880's, from George Moore—one weapon used being single-volume publication of his *A mummer's wife* (1885). From the mid-18th century the libraries have taken up a considerable share of the output of new fiction—indeed until 1830 or thereabouts many of the librarians were themselves publishers—and during the fifty-or-more years of the three-volume novel they practically monopolized it. The 'three-deckers' were not ousted until 1894—then by agreement between libraries and publishers. Even in more recent times, the inter-war period of the 7s. 6d. novel and the 18s. biography or travel book, the commercial libraries have been the largest buyers of these classes of literature. This same period saw a considerable increase in the so-called 'twopenny' libraries. Many of these were, and are, operated by independent owners, others as chains—specialist wholesalers being a feature of the trade. A number of the largest circulating libraries are themselves wholesalers, either directly with the sale or bulk hire of new books, or indirectly by the sale of ex-library books. From time to time there have been disputes within the book trade concerning the selling-off of ex-library books, but the Net Book Agreement's stipulated minimum period of six months after publication is now effectively in operation.

In 1928 a special subcommittee of the Society of Bookmen prepared and published a report on the commercial circulating libraries. The Society of Authors has studied various aspects of the subject since its foundation in 1883—reference may be made to the Society's periodical *The author*. Since 1937 the Commercial Libraries Association has looked after the interests of library proprietors and has given opportunities for discussion of matters of import—as for instance 'The issue of light fiction by Public Libraries,' subject dealt with at the 1955 annual conference.

Staffing of the subscription and circulating libraries is mainly through local recruitment, and in the case of businesses operating both bookshop and library departments, may not

be specifically to the latter—there would here be opportunities of interchange. Salaries, as in the book world generally, are not high relatively to those of other professions. Most of the large firms, and institutional subscription libraries, have pension schemes. There is no formal training on a national basis specifically for commercial circulating library work, but courses are organized for the Booksellers' Association's diplomas in relevant subjects. The training courses at the schools of librarianship, and other courses linked with the professional examinations of the Library Association, are mainly applicable to work in the learned, public and special libraries. Professional qualifications are not awarded until practical experience has been obtained in approved libraries. Approval for this purpose has so far been withheld from the commercial libraries, but it is accorded to the institutional subscription libraries such as the London Library, and similar libraries in the provinces.

Hamlyn, H. M. 'Eighteenth-century circulating libraries in England.' *Library*, Fifth Ser., 1946-47, I, 197-222.

Beckwith, F. 'The eighteenth-century proprietary library in England.' *J. Document.*, 1947, 3, 81-98.

Purnell, C. J. 'The London Library.' (*The Libraries of London*, edited by R. Irwin.) Library Association, 1949, 150-9.

Curwen, H. *A history of booksellers, the old and the new*. 1873. (This is not reliable with regard to the 18th century libraries, but there is useful material on Mudie.)

Pocklington, G. R. *The story of W. H. Smith and Son (1820-1920)*. 1921.

Dictionary of national biography, for lives of (e.g.) Allan Ramsay, Samuel Fancourt, Charles Edward Mudie, William Henry Smith, Sir C. T. Hagberg Wright (Librarian of the London Library).

Report of the commercial circulating libraries subcommittee appointed by the society of bookmen. 1928.

Libraries, museums and art galleries yearbook. 1955. (And earlier editions.)

Joy, T. *The right way to run a library business, including guidance on librarianship as a career*. Right Way Books, 1949.

G.E.S.

Subscription books 1. Those published at intervals by societies and issued to subscribing members. 2. Individual books of limited appeal, the publication of which depends to some extent on subscriptions promised prior to publication, and the price of which is raised after publication (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Subsidiaries The parts of a book in addition to the text, and including notes (whether placed in the pages or massed at the end of a book), bibliographies, appendices, indexes, imprint, colophon, blank leaves, plates, endpapers and book-jackets (*see also* PRELIMINARIES). (*Libr. Gloss.*)

Sub-title A secondary or subordinate title, usually explanatory, following the main title. Strict cataloguing practice demands differences in punctuation when transcribing a sub-title, according to kind. Ordinarily the sub-title is separated from the main title by a colon, e.g. *The heritage of the sea: studies of famous sailors*. In those cases where the sub-title is an appositive phrase a comma is used, e.g. *Lamarck, the founder of evolution*. An alternative title is transcribed as, *The tempest*; or, *The enchanted island*.

Summum genus *See* PREDICABLES.

Supercalendered paper Paper given a high gloss or polish by the pressure of supercalender rolls.

Superior letters or figures Small letters or figures cast on the shoulder of the type so that they print above the level of the lower case letters. Used for references and to refer to marginal notes.

Supposed author An author to whom is attributed, by some authoritative source, the authorship of a book published anonymously or of doubtful authorship. For cataloguing purposes such a book is entered under his name qualified by a phrase such as *supposed author* or *attributed author*, the authority for the authorship supposition being given in a note.

Suppressed Withheld or withdrawn from publication or circulation by action of author, publisher, governmental or ecclesiastical

authority or court decision. Of a leaf, cancelled from a book because of some imperfection or objectionable feature (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Swash letters Early capital letters having a freer line than the normal upper case letter; similar to, but not identical with, italic upper case letters.

Swelled rules Ornamental rules thick in the centre and gradually diminishing towards the ends.

Sweynheym, Conrad A German printer who migrated to Italy with a fellow craftsman, Arnold Pannartz, and under the patronage of Cardinal Turrecremata set up a printing press in the monastery at Subiaco, in 1465, for the printing of classical writings. In their edition of Lactantius, Greek type appears for the first time. They are considered the introducers of printing into Italy, and their semi-gothic rotunda type has been since re-cut by St. John Hornby for the Ashendene Press.

Syncopism Applied to a pseudonym where dots take the place of certain letters. In cataloguing, books written by authors who have concealed identity under a syncopism are entered under title, when the full author's name cannot be established. Added entry is made under the leading initials of the syncopism, e.g. a book stated to be 'by E. L. . . ' would be given added entry under L. . . ., E. and under E. L. . . .

Syndetic Applied to an alphabetical subject catalogue or dictionary catalogue which includes cross-references as connecting links between subjects, such cross-references attempting to mitigate the disadvantage of the separation of many related subjects by the alphabetical filing of their different names, common to these 'specific entry' catalogues. The references are of two kinds:

1. Hierarchy references. These refer from a comprehensive subject to the less extensive subjects which together comprise the comprehensive subject, and from each of these to their subordinate subjects, e.g. *Art see also Painting, Art see also Sculpture; Sculpture see also Bas-relief*.

SYNDETIK

2. Co-ordinate references. These refer both to and from subjects which are equally extensive and which are allied or serve to illustrate one another, e.g. Arithmetic *see also* Algebra, Algebra *see also* Arithmetic; Theism *see also* Atheism, Atheism *see also* Theism.

Systematic catalogues have no need of such a syndetic apparatus since their entries are filed, not by alphabetical order of subject headings, but in a systematic grouping of subjects within classes which of itself brings into proximity entries for works on similar and allied subjects.

Systematic and auxiliary schedules and tables *See* CLASSIFICATION.

Also articles on individual schemes, particularly the Bibliographic Classification.

Systematic bibliography The enumeration and classification of books. The assembling of bibliographical entries into logical and useful arrangements for study and reference (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Systematic catalogue A catalogue of subject entries, arranged in a logical order of subjects according to a systematic scheme of classification.

T

Table of contents A list of the chapter headings and sections in a book, or of individual articles in a periodical, referring to the pages on which they begin. In books in the English language the table of contents usually follows the preface.

Tail The bottom edge of a book, section or page.

Tail-piece An ornamental device at the end of a chapter or at the bottom of a printed page.

Tapes Pieces of tape, or strips of cloth, to which sections are sewed and whose free ends are pasted to the boards, or inserted between the split boards, of the book covers to lend strength to the binding.

Taxation See RATES AND TAXES.

Technical college libraries *Introduction* Before the 1939-45 War, in Great Britain, there were only 10 to 12 efficient technical college libraries. Since then 'higher technological education' has become an important factor in the national effort for economic and military well-being, and technical colleges have expanded and a number of new ones are being and have been built.

At the present time there are over 760 'establishments' for technical and further education for people over 16 years of age. Many of these, of course, are evening institutes, and only 160 of the 760 have a room called a library. Somebody other than a member of the teaching staff is in charge of the library in 121 institutions. Of these 'librarians,' 59 are qualified but less than 30 have one or more full-time assistants to help them. Less than 90 colleges have more than 3,000 books and only 14 have over 10,000. Just over 40 currently receive more than 100 periodicals.

The Library Association paid this form of librarianship little attention until 1952. The Association of Technical Institutes however,

in conjunction with two allied bodies, had produced a useful report on technical college libraries in 1938.

Historical details

The first technical college library came into being 54 years before the first public libraries act. John Anderson, a far-sighted professor of natural philosophy in the University of Glasgow had died in 1796 and his will instructed his trustees to set up a technical 'university' in Glasgow. Dr. Thomas Garnett became the first principal in November of the same year and his lecture courses were a big success in hired rooms. A permanent building was provided in 1799 and the library, much of it Anderson's, then numbered about 1,500 volumes.

For many years the College (Anderson's Institution it was called) was the only one of its kind. The next moves made educational history. Dr. George Birkbeck, who succeeded Garnett, had started mechanics classes in the College with a separate fee. Much of this money was used to buy books for the class, and in 1823 a dispute with the College authorities over the ownership of these books led to the class breaking away to form the first mechanics institution in the world. Its library was started again and inside two years numbered over 1,600 volumes. In 1887 the Institution along with two other educational bodies amalgamated with the Andersonian to form the Glasgow Technical College with a library of 12,000 volumes.

In the few years after 1823 many other mechanics institutions were formed and a library was usually one of the first practical steps taken to attract subscribers. By 1850 over 600 institutions were in existence and a number evolved into technical schools. Manchester Mechanics Institution, for instance, founded in 1824 and with a library of 1,400 books within 18 months, was re-organized in 1883 as a technical school and in 1905 became the Faculty of Technology of

the University of Manchester. It is still named Manchester College of Technology, and has hundreds of the original books.

Further developments in the setting up of technical schools came from the 1889 Technical Instruction Act and the 1890 Local Taxation Act. The latter allotted the compensation money (whisky money!) originally intended for publicans deprived of their licenses to local authorities for technical education. In 1892-93 this amounted to nearly half a million pounds and at least 12 technical institutions in London and 13 in the provinces were established under the scheme.

The Association of Technical Institutions in 1927 published a summary of the results of a questionnaire sent to colleges. This showed that the average number of books in libraries in technical institutions was 300 and the average grant for books was £20. In the same year Luxmore Newcombe published his *University and college libraries of Great Britain and Ireland* which gives details of only four technical college libraries apart from the London Polytechnics. The four are Bristol, Glasgow, Leeds and Manchester.

By 1938 the three associations concerned with technical education—the Association of Technical Institutions, the Association of Principals of Technical Institutions and the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions had decided that a full scale report was needed. A committee of 13 was set up. Most of the members were principals but there was one public librarian—Mr. L. R. McColvin. Their report *Libraries in technical institutions* runs to over 60 pages and most of its recommendations have yet to be implemented. The committee found that in 1938 only 13 colleges possessed more than 5,000 books and of these, five—London City and Guilds, Regent Street Polytechnic, Glasgow, Manchester and North Stafford had over 10,000. Full-time librarians were employed in 21 colleges at salaries ranging from £80 to £450. Only 15 colleges spent more than £200 on books, binding and periodicals. The committee reported 'the facts revealed by the questionnaire and our own personal acquaintance with technical colleges have convinced us that save in a very few instances, the library position is entirely unsatisfactory

and calls for drastic reform.' Amongst the committee's recommendations the following deserve mention: the library should be under the care of someone who has had a measure of special training and experience in library work; properly qualified librarians should always be regarded as equal in status to members of the teaching staff and be paid on the Burnham Technical Scale; annual allocation for books, periodicals and binding should be at the rate of 3s. per student for the first 2,000 and 2s. for each subsequent student. (At 1955 values these figures are 8s. and 5s. 4d.)

The present day

In 1952 the Library Association sent a questionnaire to 250 colleges concerned with technical education. Only 122 replies were received but they showed a good deal of improvement on the 1938 figures. The outcome of the questionnaire was the publication in 1954 of *Recommendations of the council on qualifications, status and salaries of technical college librarians*. There are six recommendations and the main points are: it is essential that the library of a technical institution should be in charge of a qualified librarian . . . regarded as equal in status to members of the teaching staff; the grading of posts should be related directly to the standard of work undertaken . . . university standard—grade B or C of the Local Authorities Joint Negotiating Committee for Chief Officers, advanced work and/or work of university standard—grade APT 9-10, work of school standard and/or advanced work—grade 5a-7, work of school standard only—grade 3-5; the librarian in large libraries shall be granted the status of head of a department.

In 1954 the London and Home Counties Regional Advisory Council for Higher Technological Education issued a pamphlet *Libraries in colleges of further education* which makes recommendations on accommodation, books and equipment. This is the first post-war attempt to outline the purpose of, and make recommendations for college libraries. A much more detailed set of recommendations is now being prepared by a subsection of the University and Research Section of the Library Association. This Colleges of Technology and Further Education Subsection was

formed late in 1954 to 'foster the formation, growth and usefulness of libraries in colleges of technology and further education.'

Finance: administration and function

The majority of technical colleges are controlled and financed by local education authorities and estimates and forward planning are subjected to rating vicissitudes. In extreme cases this has meant that a book fund has been cut by half or pegged at a low level. Two of the major colleges, Glasgow and Manchester, are visited by the University Grants Committee, and receive grants more or less according to need. A good case could be made out for a Technical Grants Committee to cover all the major establishments. The Government has recognized this need for continuity by making the National Colleges nationally maintained and not a charge on local rates. There are eight of these dealing with single subjects as aeronautics, food technology, horology, rubber technology, etc.

The librarian of a technical college is usually directly responsible to the principal. Occasionally he has a library committee to assist him, usually elected by the Board of Studies. In some cases this committee is just a book-selecting committee, in others it deals only with policy. The librarian should know the research and teaching needs of all the staff and be familiar with the curricula of the various departments. He can then use intelligent anticipation and give the ideal service—the book required is available before the first demand for it. In doubtful cases the book is obtained 'on approval' and submitted to the lecturers or heads of departments for their opinion.

In the larger colleges where research work is undertaken, the periodical holdings constitute a valuable part of the stock and some colleges have 300–500 sets of titles. The holdings of eight technical college libraries are shown in the *World list of scientific periodicals* (as against 12 public libraries). More and more loans are being made to other libraries and to local industry and it is becoming necessary for the college librarian to take an active part in (indeed initiate, sometimes) the co-ordination of the provision of scientific and technical

literature in his area. Unnecessary duplication of the more special and expensive items can be avoided and steps taken to build up as complete a coverage as possible of the more important periodicals by an arrangement with the public libraries and special libraries in the area. The 'staggering' of the binding of the essential periodicals which are duplicated can be a useful minor aspect of co-operation.

Most libraries now lend books to all students, often with a short loan period so that everybody gets a fair chance of consulting 'in demand' titles. Fines are imposed in as great a variety as in public libraries and issue systems too, show much variation. Classification schemes in 111 libraries are: Dewey, 65; U.D.C., 12; Bliss, 1; R.I.B.A., 1; own scheme, 27; and none, 5. Practices in cataloguing are not so easily recorded. Most libraries issue to the teaching staff at regular intervals 'recent additions' lists, and sometimes these contain references to the published work of the staff, higher degrees obtained and other items of interest concerning scientific information. Guides to the use of the library are issued in some colleges.

Future trends

The Government has recently promised to provide finance to help in the expansion of certain of the larger colleges. Advanced courses are also now eligible for increased grants in an increasing number of colleges. These factors will speed up the move to more libraries and more adequate libraries in technical colleges. In 1952–53 there were 9,744 full-time university standard students in technical colleges, against 8,305 in faculties of technology in the universities; and 44,739 full-time college students against 25,306 university faculties of science and technology students. These figures serve to point the need for better library services.

Richardson, W. A. *The technical college: its organization and administration*. 1939.

Sexton, A. H. *The first technical college*. 1894.

Wolledge, G. and Page, B. S. (eds.) *A manual of university and college library practice*. 1940.

Ardern, L. L. 'Technical college libraries.' *Libr. Ass. Conf. Proc.*, 1952.

Keenleyside, M. C. 'College librarianship.' *Wilson Libr. Bull.*, 1938, 12, 381–3.

TELONISM

Lowery, H. 'The library in the technical college.' *School Libr.*, 1945, 3, 154-7.

Shores, L. 'Evaluating library service to higher education.' *Coll. Res. Libr.*, 1941, 2, 211-15.

Wright, G. H. 'Some thoughts on technical college libraries.' *School government chronicle*. Nov., 1954.

L.L.A.

Telonym Terminal letters of an author's name used as a pseudonym.

Tetralogy A set of four related dramatic or literary compositions (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Text 1. The author's work in a book, as distinguished from notes, commentaries, etc. 2. One of the versions of an author's work which may have been published with variations in different editions. 3. The main body of matter on a printed or written page as distinguished from notes, etc. 4. The type-matter of a page, as distinguished from the illustrations and margins. 5. The main part of a book, as distinguished from preliminaries, appendix, index, etc. 6. A term sometimes applied to block letters or gothic type (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Thematic catalogue A list of the various musical works of a composer, giving the opening theme or major theme of each work (or each section in the case of large compositions). The works are usually arranged in chronological order of composition, but may be divided into categories to serve a particular purpose.

Probably the most famous thematic catalogue is that of Mozart's works, compiled by Ludwig von Köchel, the serial numbers of which are nowadays used in lieu of opus numbers.

Thesis See DISSERTATION.

'Third' indentation The distance from the left edge of a catalogue card at which, according to predetermined rules, certain parts of the description begin or continue; generally as far to the right of the second indentation as the second indentation is to the right of the first indentation (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Thread-stitched A booklet that is fastened with thread through its spine-fold.

Three-colour process Printing plates (or blocks if half-tone) produced by the photographic separation of the three primary colours in such a way that when printed in succession, the original colour will be represented.

Three-quarter binding A style similar to half binding, but the back covering extends further on to the sides (theoretically to three-quarters of half the width of the boards); and the corner coverings are proportionately larger.

Throwout A leaf bearing a map, table, diagram or similar material, mounted on a guard the full width of the book, so that the map, etc., when opened out, may be consulted easily as the book is read.

Thumb index A group of rounded notches cut out along the fore-edge of a book, with or without tabs set in, on which are printed or stamped letters, words or other characters showing the contents of that portion of the book.

Tie Cards, ribbons or narrow strips of leather, attached to the edges of book covers or cases, designed to hold the front and back covers together. A feature especially of many early vellum-bound books, where it was designed to counteract the tendency of the boards of vellum-bound books to warp.

Tier A vertical series of shelves between two uprights, one section of a press.

Tight back See FAST BACK.

Time numbers See BISCOP TIME NUMBERS.

Tint blocks Blocks or surfaces used for printing flat background colours.

Tipping in A separate leaf is said to be tipped in when it is pasted at its back margin to the page following.

Tissued plate An illustration to which a sheet of plain or printed flimsy paper has been attached for protective purposes.

Tithe documents Under the provisions of the Tithe Act, 1936, as amended, the Master

of the Rolls may direct that sealed copies of title documents shall be transferred to the Public Record Office or to any public library or museum or historical or antiquarian society willing to receive them. On transfer of such documents the governing body of the library, museum or society assumes responsibility for their proper preservation.

The Title (Copies of Instruments of Apportionment) Rules were made in 1946 (S.R. & O., 1946, No. 2091) to implement the provisions of the Act.

A.R.H.

Title 1. In the broad sense, the distinguishing name of any written production as given on the title-page, including the name of the author, editor, translator, the edition, etc., but excluding the imprint. 2. In the narrow sense the title does not include the name of author, editor, etc. (*A.A. Code*).

See also **ALTERNATIVE TITLE**; **BINDER'S TITLE**; **CAPTION TITLE**; **HALF-TITLE**; **PARTIAL TITLE**; **RUNNING TITLE**; **SUB-TITLE**; **UNIFORM TITLE**.

Title-a-line A description applied to bibliographies and especially printed catalogues in which all entries are made brief so that each occupies only a single line.

Title analytical entry A catalogue entry for a part of a work or for some article contained in a collection, made under the title of that part or article as heading, and including a reference to the publication in which the part or article appears, *e.g.*

Royal favour, by Laurence Housman. (*In* English Association. Book of short plays, 15 to 20 centuries. 1940.)

Title card A catalogue card bearing an added entry under title.

Title catalogue A catalogue consisting of title entries only.

Title edition An edition distinguished from another edition of the same book only by a change on the title-page, usually a change of date (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Title entry An entry for a book in a catalogue or bibliography, made under a word of the book's title, usually the first word other

than an article, as heading. In a catalogue the main entry for anonymous works, serial and periodical publications, encyclopaedias and the like will invariably be a title entry, whilst added entries under title are usually made for works of fiction, for individual short stories, plays, poems having distinctive titles, musical compositions, collections and composite works, pseudonymous works and for any work having a striking or fanciful title under which reference may be made by an enquirer. For example—

1. English historical review, 1886-1919. London, Longmans, Green & Co., Ltd., 1886-1919.
v. 1-34. 25½ cm.
Quarterly.
2. How to run a bassoon factory, by Mark Spade [*i.e.* Nigel Balchin]. 1949.

Title indentation The distance from the left edge of a catalogue card at which the title normally begins (the 13th typewriter space); on a standard ruled card, at the second vertical line.

Title leaf The leaf at the beginning of a book, whose recto bears the title-page. The verso often bears a list of the editions and impressions in which the book has been issued, and sometimes the name of the printer.

Title-page A page at the front of a book containing the full title and usually the name of the author, editor, translator, etc., the edition statement and the imprint. The term is often used wrongly to mean title leaf. In the case of works in Oriental languages the title-page and 'preliminaries' are normally found at the back of the volume.

In cataloguing, the title-page is transcribed to form the major descriptive part of the catalogue entry (see also **ADDED TITLE-PAGE**; **DOUBLE TITLE-PAGE**).

Title-page border An ornamented frame either woodcut or of type ornaments or rules surrounding the text on the title-page.

Title sheet The first signature of a book, containing title-page, dedication and other preliminary matter. Also called 'title signature' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

TITLING

Titling Upper case type cast so that there is no beard at the foot of the letter, which occupies the whole of the surface.

Titlonym A quality or title used as a pseudonym, as by 'A doctor.' Books published under this kind of pseudonym are, for cataloguing purposes, treated as anonymous if the author's real name cannot be found, and main entry made under title. Added entry is made under the titlonym.

Token issue system A book issue method introduced in the Westminster Public Libraries in 1954 and since adopted by several other libraries. The borrower is supplied with a membership card, which must be produced when books are borrowed, and a number of plastic tallies or 'tokens.' A token is surrendered to borrow a book and a token is recovered when a book is returned. At the end of the registration period the reader is required to produce the number of tokens originally supplied as evidence that no books have been retained.

McColvin, L. R. 'Westminster token charging scheme.' *Libr. Ass. Rec.*, 1954, 56, 259-61.

Tooling Impressing an ornamental design on a book cover by means of heated 'tools' (dies). Also known as 'hand tooling.' When this is done through gold leaf it is called 'gold tooling'; when neither leaf nor pigment is used it is called 'blind tooling.' When the entire design is on a single piece of metal it is called a 'stamp' or 'block.'

Topic guide A guide to a specific subject, usually a narrow block of wood or piece of cardboard bearing the subject and class number, placed on the shelf at the beginning of the books on the subject (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Topical bibliography An analytical bibliography, consisting of short bibliographies placed at the ends of chapters (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Topographical map A map that shows physical and cultural features of an area (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Tory, Geoffroy (c. 1480-1533). A famous French typographer and designer. He was noted also as a painter and engraver, and as a reformer of French grammar and spelling.

In his decorative illustrations and borders for books, and in his series of roman types, he exhibited a subtler and finer genius than any of his predecessors. His theories as to correct letter formation are expounded in *Champ Fleury* (1529). Tory is also known for his delicate printer's device, *le pot cassé*—an urn with a lance thrust into one side.

Tracing In a card catalogue, the record on a main entry card indicating the headings under which added entries for that work are filed. On an authority card references are also recorded. The most usual position for tracings is on the reverse of the card, but they are sometimes placed on the front, or on an accompanying card. Should the entries for a work require to be removed from the catalogue for alteration, withdrawal, etc., the presence of the tracing on the main entry card directs the attention to all entries and ensures that none is missed.

The most explicit form of tracing consists of the exact heading of each added entry. More usually and especially when the names used for added entry headings appear in sufficient fullness in the main entry, abbreviations are used which indicate the *kind* of added entry only (except in the case of subject entries, where the exact subject heading is essential to the finding of the entry).

For example—

an.	(Indicates analytical entry)
comp.	(Indicates compiler entry)
ed.	(Indicates editor entry)
gen. 2dary	(Indicates general secondary entry)
illus.	(Indicates illustrator entry)
jt.	(Indicates joint author entry)
ser.	(Indicates series entry)
t.	(Indicates title entry)
tr.	(Indicates translator entry)

Tract 1. A pamphlet made from a single sheet imposed in pages. 2. A pamphlet containing a short discourse, particularly one on a religious or a political topic, issued to serve as propaganda (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Trade bibliography A list of books in print or for sale, compiled by a publisher, a bookseller or a group of such agencies (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Trade catalogue 1. A book or pamphlet issued by a manufacturer or a dealer, or by a group of manufacturers, illustrating and describing their products or goods and sometimes including, or accompanied by, a price list. 2. A trade bibliography, also called a 'trade list' (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Trade series See PUBLISHER'S SERIES.

Transaction charging Book issue methods in which the loan records are kept in serial order, the first loan of the day receiving the lowest number and the last loan the highest number. A new sequence may be started each day or the same sequence may be continued for several months to allow for the return of a number before it is used again. Hand operated methods require two sets of cards, a numbered and dated card being inserted in the book pocket and another card, bearing the same serial number, being used to record book number and borrower's ticket number. American libraries usually require the borrower to do the writing on a call slip which is filed with the transaction card. Photographic charging and audio charging are mechanized versions of transaction charging as are some methods using punched cards. Pocket card charging may also be combined with transaction number filing with advantages in certain situations. The charging system with all these methods cannot assist in intercepting reserved books as the records are not in book order.

Kaiser, W. H. 'No machines used in this charging system.' *Libr. J.*, 1950, 75, 512-14.

Pike, J. 'A new lease of life . . .?' *Libr. World*, 1954, 56, 86-87.

Transactions 1. The published papers and abstracts of papers presented at a meeting of a learned society. 2. Proceedings. A general distinction sometimes made between transactions and proceedings is that transactions are the papers and addresses and proceedings are the record of the meeting (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Transfer printing See DECALCOMANIA.

Transfer processes Methods of photocopying, usually by the reflex process, in which the image is transferred to the copy paper. Two types of transfer process were developed in the 1950's—the soft gelatine transfer

process and the diffusion transfer process. In the former, the master is a sheet of paper coated with a gelatine emulsion containing a light-sensitive silver compound, a developer and a dye-forming component. After exposure the master undergoes treatment which hardens the exposed parts and leaves the image soft, at the same time dyeing the master. Plain paper is then placed in close contact with the master between rubber rollers, and receives an impression of the image. Several copies may be taken, but copies after the first receive a fainter impression. The diffusion transfer process makes use of two sheets of gelatine-coated paper, one of them sensitive to light. The sensitized paper is exposed by the reflex process and placed face-to-face with the other sheet before they are passed through a machine which develops the image. When the sheets are separated the non-sensitized sheet is a facsimile of the original document. The negative may be fixed permanently and extra prints taken from it by other photocopying methods.

Hawken, W. R. 'New methods for photocopying.' *Libr. J.*, 1954, 79, 1, 115-24.

Translation Translation is the rendering of something written, or spoken, in one language into another language. The librarian may proudly reflect that translation is generally undertaken as one more way of getting recorded information to the person who is to benefit thereby—which is, after all, a good definition of librarianship generally.

The purpose of translation has in fact usually been utilitarian. It has been to present educational propaganda, or scientific information, to a public unable to understand the original language and relatively indifferent to form.

All through the Middle Ages the philosophy of the Greeks was translated and retranslated by way of Syriac, Arabic and Latin in every conceivable sequence, and eventually into the local vernacular of Western Europe, for the knowledge of Greek had declined with the Roman Empire, but there was still a demand for a knowledge of Aristotle or Plato at third or fourth hand. But the most striking expression of this urge to spread teaching by way of

TRANSLATION

translation comes from a martyr who died for that cause—William Tyndale, who translated the New Testament, and most of the Old Testament, from the Hebrew and Greek originals, 'that the boy who drove the plough might know the Scriptures.'

But this means to an end, an end which Tyndale knew would bring him to martyrdom, was also perhaps the supreme example of a literary masterpiece achieved for an utilitarian end. Perhaps Tyndale's noble, yet simple and popular expression, was the greatest single factor in shaping modern English prose style.

It was left to more conscious literary artists to express the urge which impelled translators to improve and beautify the form and style which originally had been secondary considerations—so that in fact we have had from time to time original masterpieces translated by masters into new masterpieces. 'The translator' wrote Dryden, himself a master, 'ought to perfectly comprehend the genius and sense of his author, the nature of the subject, and the terms of the art or subject treated of, and then he will express himself as justly, and with as much life, as if he wrote an original.'

The outcome of this urge, instinctive and spontaneous or else conscious, has often been that the incidental achievement has overshadowed the immediate purpose. Tyndale's Bible forms a foundation for modern English prose style, Luther's Bible endows Germany with a uniform literary language, and the fame of Chapman's Homer, or of North's retranslation of Amyot's translation of Plutarch, or of Florio's translation of Montaigne is surpassed by the gratitude to them of those of us who love Keats and Shakespeare.

Dissemination of propaganda—the means; perfecting the means into an end in itself; and then on top of it all the means turns out to be as great an achievement as the end! Now the process is starting again, with the growing realization of the world-wide scope of technical and scientific literature. It has been estimated that at least one million scientific articles, reports, patent specifications and books are added to the world's libraries every year but over 50 per cent of these are written in languages which over 50 per cent of the world's scientists cannot read. A

forthcoming *Report on scientific and technical translating and related problems*, to be published by UNESCO, reviews the requirements made of a technical translator, the provision of glossaries, the centralized recordings of available translations, the development of mechanical translation, the training of scientists to read foreign languages and the adoption of existing national or artificial auxiliary languages. Holmstrom (in a preview of this report), Frerk ('The translator should know the language as well as a native . . . have a wide general education . . . specialize'), Rabaté ('sound knowledge of the language of the text, of one's own language, and also of the science and technology . . . in question'), a Committee of the Institute of Linguists ('extensive knowledge of the subject matter even more essential than . . . of the language of origin; critical faculties; clear expression in the translator's own language'), Brearley ('thorough and idiomatic knowledge of the language translated from, accurate and if possible graceful expression in the language into which . . . adequate knowledge of the subject and exact knowledge of the technical terms')—all these, in an age of science, echo the substance of Dryden's words to a literary age. Whether the urgency of technical literature can leave time to cultivate the ideal of style is doubtful, but it is well that the ideal is so repeatedly affirmed. We must, of course, remember that many modern novelists and poets make much play with scientific and technical ideas, so that for their translators the ideals reaffirmed above have a double force.

Mechanical translation is the subject of many experiments, and is indeed claimed by some writers as 'satisfactory, at least for scientific texts.' The idea is said to have been advanced first by Booth in 1947, but it is also claimed that wartime cryptography gave the original impetus. Digital computers are used, although a general purpose machine is 'too complex in the arithmetic sense and too small (in capacity)'; binary coding or teletype coding is used to allow simple two-state (on or off) elements to be used; storage is on a magnetic drum. The practical application of machine translation depends on two things—a limited vocabulary, and means for dealing with the variants introduced by stem-ending combinations (the

machine may be directed to turn back or skip on so as to choose an alternative). However, provision and maintenance of the equipment is costly; pre-editors of the in-put text and post-editors of the output may be needed to smooth out the difficulties; and the machine is slow.

We may end with some notes on the organization and bibliography of translation. The specialized examining and professional organization for translators and interpreters is the Institute of Linguists. Reputable translators advertise in journals such as *Nature* and the *Official Journal (Patents)*. The D.S.I.R. has a co-operative scheme for paying for Russian translations. The British Commonwealth Scientific Office sponsors an Index to Unpublished Translations, maintained at six national centres, of which Aslib is the British one, receiving entries from those who take the initiative of submitting; 1,139 entries were added in 1954. UNESCO publishes an annual international bibliography of published translations, mainly books, *Index translationum*. Many journals feature full or abridged translations of technical papers, notably, *Sheet metal industries* and the American *Rubber chemistry and technology*. One American and one British organization translate and republish several Russian scientific journals *in toto*. Such translations have to be actively sought, or else noted as they arise along with original papers in the ordinary bibliographical or abstracting sources.

Rabaté, H. 'On translations.' (Address to the International Committee on Terminology, Organic Coatings Division, IUPAC.)

J. Oil Col. Chem. Ass., 1955, 38, 311-14.

Holmstrom, J. E. 'The language problem of science.' (Preview of the UNESCO report referred to above.) *Research*, 1954, 7, 190-5.

Bar-Hillel, Y. 'Can translation be mechanized?' *Amer. Scient.*, 1954, 42, 248-60. (Semi-popular discussion with bibliography.)

Booth, A. D. 'Calculating machines and mechanical translation.' *Discovery*, 1954, 15, 280-5. (General principles and historical aspects.)

Stout, T. M. 'Computing machines for language translation.' *Mechanical Translation*, 1954, 1, 41-46.

Brearley, D. H. R. 'Traduttore—Traditore. *Musical Opinion*, 1954, 77, 471, 473. (General principles, and a review of a translation of a book on music.)

Frerk, C. W. 'The translator at work.' *Linguists' Rev.*, 1952, No. 123. (The first two parts of a series based on lectures to the Linguists' Club. The author proposes to write a comprehensive study.)

Aslib. 'The translation of scientific material—a symposium.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1955, 7, 63-73. (Survey—somewhat complacent in parts—from the point of view of the information officer.)

R. J. M.

Transliteration and transcription When we transliterate we reproduce the *words* of a foreign, or away, language which uses different letters from those of the home language, using, for the benefit of those more conversant with the home language, the *letters* used in that home language. This might be termed an orthographic equation.

When we transcribe we reproduce in the letters of the home language the sounds of an away language which uses ideographs—*i.e.* representing the ideas themselves rather than the sounds made by someone uttering those ideas. This is a fundamental conversion rather than an equation. This distinction should become clearer when demonstrated later in this article; perhaps it will help to say that some students claim that the introduction of alphabetic writing, representing sounds and not ideas, was less desirable than ideographic writing, in the West as well as the East.

Now, transliteration and transcription are of paramount interest to the readers of this Encyclopaedia, *i.e.* those whose task is to recognize and care for documents. The away alphabet or ideography has naturally evolved to suit the away language (even though living languages evolve away from the alphabet!), and any student of a literary or scientific text in that language will deal at first hand and forget all about transcription or transliteration; but for the librarian who may never read a word of the text, these are practical problems. The approach must be practical, and librarians sometimes wonder whether the most practical approach of all is not to

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSCRIPTION

use the away alphabet itself—after all, the home alphabet can hardly be expected to do the job as well!

However, let us consider things as they are, and disregarding, e.g. the Devanagiri script of the Indian Federal Language ('Reformed Hindi') and Chinese, Arabic and Hebrew, as of relatively slight interest to the majority of librarians, let us illustrate transliteration from Russian and transcription from Japanese, as they have at present the most literature.

The transliteration of Russian

It is generally conceded that transliteration must go by the letters, not by the sounds—in certain circumstances Russian 'o' is pronounced 'a', 'e' as 'ye' or 'yo' and 'go' as 'vo,' but the transliteration system must be independent of these incidentals. It has also been said that although the sounds of one language do not exactly tally with those of another, the home alphabet should be used 'in the normal manner of the native use,' or a self-evident extension of that manner, so as to reasonably suggest the sounds of the away language. As Russian uses over 30 Cyrillic characters (named after St. Cyril of Thessalia (9th century) who invented this alphabet to represent the Slavonic sounds) as compared with our 26, we have to use combinations of letters to represent certain Russian letters, just as we have to for many basic and recurrent sounds in the English language itself; we have to ensure that the components cannot really be confused with other Russian letters.

These desiderata—which are comprehensive enough in their implications—are satisfied by the Anglo-American usage followed, with minor variations, by the national libraries and chief bibliographical services, as well as by the best-known text-books of the language. This usage—which like the British Constitution is not rigidly codified but has worked for a long time—is being challenged by the I.S.O. (International Organization for Standardization) proposals for Cyrillic transliteration, which are based on the Croatian transliteration of the Serbian alphabet—a principle of which the relevance to the main matter is controversial, and which involves using the Roman characters in a way completely

foreign to the vast majority of those interested in transliteration.

It is interesting to see that the other countries of Europe themselves transliterate Russian into 'the normal manner of the native usage,' while the Russians follow what seems to be the only course open to them, that of *transcribing* what they take—often mistakenly—to be the *sound* of the away language into their own alphabet, as far as possible. Care has to be taken in getting back to the starting point, because the Russians, exasperatingly but understandably, write, e.g. 'Relei' and 'Uoll' for 'Rayleigh' and 'Wall.' Imagination plus a practical approach is needed for such problems, where rigid codification is out of the question. One point, however, stands out clearly—in quoting Western references the Russians use the original Roman form, and perhaps the ideal solution of our transliteration problems would be to reciprocate, and, as already suggested, use the Cyrillic alphabet for Cyrillic references.

The transcription of Japanese

Whereas with Cyrillic transliteration one has to go by the orthography, with Japanese other principles have to be considered—

1. The language—partially tonal, with a considerable number of homophones—is represented most effectively by the ideographic characters (which were originally borrowed from the Chinese), hence it seems unlikely that it will ever be written by any other system.
2. The *phonetic* rendering is in 'Kana'—a *syllabary*, since the basic sounds of Japanese are open *syllables*.
3. These sounds are transcribed into Roman letters, either by the Hepburn system—an old-established table of equivalents which reflects incidental mutations 'as is'—or by the Japanese system or 'New spelling,' which the Japanese claim to reflect the underlying phonetic structure of the language. The Japanese have taken to this system of transcribing in about the last 30 years, but the outside world sticks to the Hepburn system.

As far as the librarian is concerned, there would appear, in view of the homophonic character of the language, to be little point in

trying to transcribe the titles—they just have to be quoted in the 'home' language. As to authors' names, the Japanese frequently oblige us by giving their names in Roman letters, and with the surname at the end, but, of course, the librarians may have to retranscribe into the Hepburn system.

Suggestions for further reading

Two excellent summaries of the position with regard to Russian are found in 'Transliteration with special reference to Russian,' by R. A. Acton Taylor (to whose work the present writer is greatly indebted) (*Linguists' Rev.*, 1952, No. 123, 19–20) and in comments by H. E. L. Freytag in a discussion on what is now the I.S.O. scheme (*Proc. Brit. Soc. int. Bibliogr.*, 1940, 2, Pt. 1, 7–10). *Latinization of Cyrillic characters*, by Prof. W. K. Matthews (reprinted from *Slavonic Rev.*, 1952, 30, No. 75) includes a valuable annotated bibliography. G. J. M. Fritschy of the Committee for Russian Technical Literature of the Netherlands Association of Librarians, in a valuable paper, deplores the tendency of such discussions to forget the user, and strongly supports the *Chemical Abstracts* scheme as an alternative, since 'even if the I.S.O. transliteration should be standardized, it would only be used on a restricted scale.' The Anglo-American usage is tabulated in the annual indexes of *Chemical Abstracts*, and is seen in use, e.g. in British Museum and Science Museum Library publications. The I.S.O. scheme will be given in a forthcoming British Standard, based on I.S.O. recommendation I.S.O. R-9, which is now being finally edited. The Royal Society *General notes on preparation of scientific papers*, 1950, follows *Chemical Abstracts*, i.e. Anglo-American usage, while a later scheme, prepared by H. S. Bushell with the joint backing of the Royal Society and the British Academy (Feb., 1953), is also broadly in line with Anglo-American usage. Unfortunately the Russian standard on transliteration, OST/VKS 8483, is not available in this country, which is regrettable in view of the desire to make this review international in scope but is stated by Fritschy (*loc. cit.*) to correspond largely with the *Chemical Abstracts* system. However, the position is under review here also. An in-

genious but hardly helpful suggestion has been put forward by H. R. Hayes (*Linguists' Rev.*, 1955, No. 133, 15) for using the Roman letters and other type symbols visually most resembling the individual Cyrillic characters, virtually to imitate rather than transliterate Russian.

The position with regard to Japanese is admirably stated in the UNESCO *Report on scientific and technical translation and related problems*, and in two articles by Alan Towsey (*Linguist*, 1953, 15, Nos. 9–10). An excellent short paper by J. L. Mish, of the New York Public Library, (*J. Chem. Educ.*, 1955, 32, 137–8) deals with the transliteration [sic] of Japanese, Chinese and Arabic.

R. J. M.

Transmission copying In documentary reproduction, the making of a photocopy by passing light through an original translucent one-sided document, in contact with sensitized paper.

Transpose To change the position of lines, etc., as shown in proof. The direction is indicated by $\sqsubset \sqsupset$ with 'tr.' in the margin.

Travelling libraries See MOBILE LIBRARIES.

Tray label A label indicating the contents of a single catalogue drawer, inserted into a special holder on the front of the drawer.

Tree calf A calf-bound book whose boards have been treated so as to produce a design resembling the trunk and branches of a tree.

Trilogy A set of three related dramatic or literary compositions (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Trimming A book is trimmed if only the larger projecting leaves are cut so that the edges are not solid and some bolts may remain unopened.

Tschichold, Jan Typographer and calligrapher, born April 2, 1902, at Leipzig, where from 1920 he taught calligraphy at the Akademie für Graphische Kunst u. Buchgewerbe; 1926 taught calligraphy and typography at Munich; 1933 emigrated to Basle, of which city he became a citizen in 1942. In 1947 appointed to advise on the typography of Penguin Books. Author of books

TUB SIZED

on typography and calligraphy, Chinese colour printing, and a collector of old writing books.

Tub sized See **SIZE**.

Turn-in The portion of a book cover formed by folding-in the overlapping material on the head, tail and fore-edge of the boards.

Turn-over 1. Printed matter extended beyond the allotted space. 2. More particularly, a newspaper article continuing over from a preceding page.

Turned letter 1. A letter set the wrong way up by the compositor. 2. Type placed feet up to indicate that a particular letter is not available.

Two on (printing) Printing two pages of a single leaf at one impression, *i.e.* as four pages, 1, 3; 2, 4.

Two sheets-on sewing In bookbinding, a method of sewing on bands, tapes or cords that treats two adjoining sections as a single unit; a method generally used for thick volumes composed of thin sections, to avoid making the bound volume too swollen at the back. Also known, as 'two on' sewing.

Two-way paging The system of page numbering used for a book with texts in two languages, one of which reads from left to right and the other from right to left, when the texts are in two distinct sections with page sequence from opposite ends to the centre of the book (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Tympan The frame covered with stout paper or cloth to which paper for printing in a hand press is attached by pins. The tympan folds over the bed of the press and slides under the platen when the press is operated.

In a rotary press, the roller opposite the printing roller, over which the paper web passes.

Tympan sheet A sheet of paper placed between the impression surface and the paper to be printed.

Type Raised characters cast in metal on a rectangular body which may be set together in lines to reproduce written matter. Pieces of

type are of uniform height throughout the trade (though the Oxford University Press has its own measure) and the size of characters or letters is described as being of a given number of points (*see also* **TYPE HEIGHT**).

Type area The amount of space on a page to be filled with type.

Type face 1. The surface on the upper end of type that bears in relief the letter or character to be printed. 2. The style of a fount of type.

Type facsimile A reprint, strictly on a page for page and line for line basis, in which the exact appearance of the original is imitated.

Type flowers Conventional designs cast in type metal of type height and intended to decorate a book without recourse to engravings or woodcut illustrations (*see also* **BORDERS**; **FLOWERS**, **ORNAMENT TYPE ORNAMENTS**).

Type height The standard height to which type bodies are cast, .918 of an inch in Britain.

Type ornament A conventional design cast in type metal, larger than Type Flowers, used to ornament title-pages, chapter heads and tails.

Type page All the printed portion of a page.

Typography May be defined as the study of the formation, execution and presentation on the page of printed letters and in particular the effect on legibility and aesthetic appearance of the book considered as a whole. Morison in his *First principles of typography* emphasizes the importance of the correct disposition of type on the page; of the paper of which that page is made; and of the purpose to which the printing is directed. The reader expects that the printed page should be of assistance in conveying ideas, and therefore no printer can ignore the cultural trends of his customers or the great force of traditionally accepted types in their conventional layouts. A good letter is one that is thoroughly legible, inoffensive through lack of oddity and preferably based on the long established styles of Caslon, Baskerville, Plantin and Garamond, whose work though not necessarily the best, commands general acceptance, and through the very element of unobtrusiveness, has

become regarded as successful typography. Definite optical principles govern the relationship between the size of type and the length of line, the latter being most conveniently of about 10-12 words, a principle perhaps not sufficiently stressed by Morris in his pre-occupation with the outer margins. Nor did Morris see the visual difficulties caused by his close set lines. Excess white is as bad as too little, and the successful balancing of the two colours is one of the great problems of the book designer. Until modern times interest in typography tended to be synonymous with letter formation, and in particular drew inspiration from the inscriptions of ancient Rome. Classical scholars, e.g. the 9th century pilgrim of Reichenau, N. di Rienzi (1355), and Poggio (c. 1417) avidly collected and studied Roman inscriptions, but the earliest extant treatise on the shapes of these letters is that of Felicianus (1463) (Vatican MS. 538), wherein the geometric structure of letters is recorded in detail. The *Divina proportione* of Pacioli (1509) with letters designed by da

Vinci has long been thought the earliest printed work on the subject, but later research has established the priority of the anonymous Alphabet printed at Parma by Moyllus c. 1483. Both books, however, seem to stem from a common unknown original. Other and later experiments in achieving a perfect letter by geometric or mechanical rules were made especially by Arrighi (1522), Dürer (*Unterweysung der Messung*, 1525), G. Tory (*Champ Fleury*, 1529), and perhaps most important, the French Academie des Sciences, whose letters of 1695 were intended as models for the Roman du Roi. It is significant that Grandjean, when actually cutting the punches, found the theoretical designs impracticable. Modern designers have, under the influence of Edward Johnston, tended to seek inspiration from calligraphy, and this, allied with the technical perfection of press work, the due consideration of layout and of the correct selection of appropriate paper has proved a more rewarding line of approach.

R.N.L.

U

Unauthorized edition An edition issued without the consent of the author or the representative to whom he may have delegated his rights and privileges (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Uncial A large rounded letter in early MSS., a modification of the sculptor's capitals. In general use from about the 4th to the 8th centuries A.D.

Uncut edges All edges left in their original (folded) condition.

Underlay A piece of paper placed under the forme to level up a portion of the type which is printing insufficiently.

UNESCO The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (19 Avenue Kléber, Paris, 16e), was formed as a specialized agency of the United Nations in 1946. At December 31, 1956, 80 states were members. The present Director-General is Luther Harris Evans (U.S.A.), formerly Librarian of Congress, who took office in July, 1953.

The degree to which the promotion of international understanding in the post-war period depended on the restoration of the free exchange of information and on world-wide library reconstruction and development was self-evident; and extensive programmes in these fields formed from the outset a prominent feature of the Organization's work.

Unesco operates in two ways—either directly, by means of the programmes approved by its General Conference or by taking part in the United Nations programme for Technical Assistance, or indirectly, through subventions or contracts granted to other competent international bodies. In bibliography, the latter method has assumed a special importance.

In the world of librarianship Unesco's work falls into three main divisions: bibliography; library development; international exchange of publications and the free flow of information generally. To these must be added the

important contribution of Unesco to international copyright law. While almost all the administrative units of the Organization have taken part in these activities, the Libraries Division has had special responsibilities for both action and co-ordination.

Bibliography

A thorough survey of current bibliographies¹ prepared the way for an International Conference on the Improvement of Bibliographical Services, held in Paris in 1950, which established the present structure of international bibliography. One immediate result of the conference was the formation of the International Advisory Committee on Bibliography, consisting of prominent librarians representing various regions of the world and a number of specialized subject fields as well as I.F.L.A. and F.I.D. Working closely with the Committee and with Unesco itself are national bibliographical groups or correspondents in nearly 60 countries. The Committee, largely on the basis of its annual report on *Bibliographical services throughout the world*,² advises the Director-General on the planning and co-ordination of all the bibliographical programmes operated or sponsored by Unesco. It maintains close contact with I.F.L.A., F.I.D., the International Council on Archives, the International Association of Music Libraries and the International Organization for Standardization, and devotes special attention to such topics as overlapping between or lacunae in international subject bibliographies, standardizing names in Asian languages for purposes of cataloguing, and production of international bibliographical standards. A quarterly mimeographed *Bibliographical newsletter*, issued by the Libraries Division of Unesco, keeps Unesco, the Committee and the national groups in touch with each other.

A provisional Liaison Committee of International Organizations for Librarianship and Documentation was set up in 1952; one of its

most important tasks was the planning, with a Unesco subvention, of the International Congress on Librarianship and Documentation held in Brussels in September, 1955.

Since 1949, Unesco has published the annual *Index translationum*, of which the volume for 1955, published in 1957, listed 24,275 titles of translations published in 51 different countries. The *Index bibliographicus*³ is a directory of current periodical abstracts and bibliographies. Among other important publications are the Lemaître and Thompson's *Vocabularium bibliothecarii*⁴ and a handbook on *National bibliographical services* by K. Larsen (1953, 142 pages).

Humanities Unesco has concentrated, by means of subventions administered through the International Council for Philosophy and Humanistic Studies, on assisting international learned and professional associations to publish specialized bibliographies such as the *International bibliography of historical sciences*, the *Bibliographie de l'histoire des religions*, *l'Année philologique*, *African abstracts* and the *Bibliographie Américaniste*. Many of the older-established works in this category were enabled in this way to resume publication after the war.

Natural and social sciences An International Conference on Science Abstracting was held in Paris in 1949⁵ after a preliminary study of abstracting services existing at that time. It resulted in the formation of the International Advisory Committee for Documentation and Terminology in Pure and Applied Sciences, a body of science documentalists working on parallel lines to those of the International Advisory Committee on Bibliography, and keeping in touch through a *Monthly bulletin of scientific documentation and terminology* with its own national groups. The International Council of Scientific Unions, established in 1952, administers through its Abstracting Board subventions granted by Unesco for the publication of the *Bibliographie géographique internationale*, *Bibliographie hydrologique internationale*, *Astronomischer Jahresbericht* and other specialized works. The Abstracting Board has also arranged for 40 physics journals published in five countries to send proof sheets in advance to the Board or to *Physics abstracts*, *Bulletin analytique du C.N.R.S.*,

or *Physikalische Berichte* so that abstracts may appear from six months to a year earlier than would otherwise have been possible. This experiment may be extended to other subjects.

In medicine and biology, Unesco began work as early as 1947, when a preparatory conference was called to consider abstracting services in these fields. A Co-ordinating Committee on Abstracting and Indexing in the Medical and Biological Sciences,⁶ formed in 1948, handed over its work in 1953 to the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences, which, with a subvention from Unesco and in collaboration with the World Health Organization, continues to co-ordinate medical and biological abstracting.⁷

Attention has also been paid to the improvement of terminology and lexicography in the natural and social sciences and to the problems of scientific and technical translating.⁸

Social science bibliographies are co-ordinated by the International Committee for Social Science Documentation, which publishes the quarterly *International political science abstracts*. Subventions or contracts are granted for the regular production of the *International political science bibliography*, the *International economic bibliography*, a newly-established *International bibliography of anthropology*⁹ and others. In addition, a number of important individual publications have appeared.^{10, 11, 12}

Science Co-operation Offices of Unesco in various parts of the world prepare regional bibliographies and other reference works.

The Unesco Department of Mass Communication issues, in its series *Reports and papers*, occasional bibliographies on press, film, radio and television matters.

Education The Clearing House of the Department of Education of Unesco collaborates with national centres, of which a preliminary international survey, *Education clearing houses and documentation centres*, appeared in 1957 (55 pages). Advisory services were provided for the formation of such centres in Turkey, Yugoslavia and elsewhere. The Clearing House acts as a centre for educational information, working closely with the International Universities Bureau in Paris and the International Bureau of Education in Geneva. It publishes the monthly

UNESCO

Education abstracts and, in its series *Educational studies and documents*, a number of occasional bibliographies.

Library development

In 1948 Unesco published a manifesto, *The public library; a living force for popular education*, on public library work and organization. All subsequent work in public library development has recognized the close association between education and libraries. Four seminars have been held: on public library extension, at Manchester in 1948; on libraries and education, at Malmö in 1950;¹³ on library development in Africa, at Ibadan, Nigeria in 1953; on public library development in Asia, in Delhi in 1955. The needs of Latin America were studied at a conference at São Paulo in 1951 (*Development of public libraries in Latin America*, 1952, 192 pages).

Unesco and the Indian Government jointly established in 1951 the Delhi Public Library, a 'pilot project' for South Asia as a whole.¹⁴ This was followed by the Medellín Public Library, Colombia, opened in 1954 as a 'pilot project' for Latin America. These libraries are designed to serve as models for future development in the regions concerned and as training centres for librarians from countries throughout the regions. A similar project for Africa is in preparation.

Among other works of direct benefit to member states—already working or under consideration—are: a national library in Burma; national bibliographical centres in Pakistan, Turkey and Uruguay; scientific documentation in centres in Brazil, Egypt, India, Mexico, Uruguay and Yugoslavia; development of library services or individual public or university libraries in Afghanistan, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Korea and Syria.

International exchange of publications and the free flow of information

One of Unesco's earliest actions was to establish contacts between war-damaged libraries and libraries having material for disposal or exchange. The *Unesco bulletin for libraries* published lists of desiderata and material offered, and national exchange centres such as the British National Book Centre and the U.S. Book Exchange co-

operated. After the immediate needs of reconstruction had been met, and international communications had improved, Unesco was able to hand over much of this work to national centres and individual libraries.¹⁵

The *Bulletin*, while continuing to publish information on exchanges, gradually became a periodical of general information on all matters pertaining to librarianship.

The shortage of printed material prompted special study of documentary reproduction techniques (*Unesco survey of microfilm use 1951, 1952*, 44 pages, and Verry, H. R. *Microphotography; report of an enquiry, 1951*, 2 parts) and of the availability of microfilms of out-of-print publications (*Manual on document reproduction and selection*, The Hague, F.I.D. (for Unesco), 1953, 2 vols.; and *Directory of photocopying and microcopying services*, 2nd ed., The Hague, F.I.D. (for Unesco), 1955, 50 pages).

Before the foundation of Unesco, the Conference of Allied Ministers for Education had already publicly deprecated the habit of imposing tariffs on books. Unesco's principal concern in this matter, which became more rather than less serious in the post-war years, was the promulgation of the Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials, which came into force on May 21, 1952.¹⁶ This provided that all such material, including films, slides, recordings, scientific apparatus, and even certain categories of works of art, as well as all publications for the blind, shall be free of duty, either absolutely or—in certain categories—when consigned to recognized libraries, museums or other institutions. By 1956, 24 countries (including the United Kingdom together with 40 of its overseas territories) were operating and a further 10 had signed this Agreement. In September, 1955, the International Air Transport Association began to study problems involved in reducing freight charges on cargo of this kind.

Even before the Agreement had been prepared, Unesco had in 1948 instituted the Book Coupon Scheme as a means of overcoming barriers to the ready acquisition of books. The Scheme established an internationally valid voucher, primarily intended

to enable 'soft-currency' countries to buy books from 'hard-currency' countries, and later enlarged in scope to include the purchase of films and scientific materials as well as books. By 1956, over 30 countries had associated themselves with the Scheme and the total amount of coupons issued had reached \$14,500,000.

Copyright

Nor, amid all the work of promoting access to books, have the interests of authors and publishers been overlooked. The Universal Copyright Convention, drawn up by the Inter-governmental Copyright Conference at Geneva in 1952, marked an important step forward in the international protection of creative work; and its ratification by the United States of America, which had never adhered to the Berne Convention, was one of the most noteworthy events of 1954 in this field. The administration of the Convention remains provisionally in the hands of Unesco; it came into force on September 16, 1955, and of the 40 countries which signed it, 23 had ratified or acceded by February, 1957. Since the Convention is based on the principle that in each country foreign authors should benefit from national laws, the publication in English, French and Spanish of a complete and accurate collection of all national copyright enactments is an essential part of the administrative machinery; the English edition, *Copyright laws and treaties of the world*, appeared in 1956.

Unesco library

The library of the Organization itself performs two main functions: the acquisition of a reference collection of material on member states and of documentation needed for the day-to-day work of the Secretariat of the Organization, together with the necessary reference, loan and information services; and the provision of a central acquisitions service for the other documentation services in the House, the Science Co-operation Offices and the Technical Assistance and other missions. The basic book and periodical collections of the scientific documentation centres in India, Mexico and Yugoslavia, for instance, were ordered through the Library. Present holdings of the Library include 29,000

volumes (of which 13,000 form the reference collection) and 3,000 current periodicals. The Library works closely with the information or documentation centres of the various departments and with the United Nations Information Office in Unesco House.

All works listed are published in Paris by Unesco unless otherwise stated. Most exist also in French and some in Spanish or other languages.

¹ Unesco/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey. *Bibliographical services, their present state and possibilities of improvement*. Washington. 1950. 2 parts.

² *Bibliographical services throughout the world. First and second annual reports, 1951-52, 1952-53* (in one vol.) by L. N. MacLès, 1955, 319 pp. *Third annual report, 1953-54*, by R. L. Collison, 1956, 93 pp. (Fourth in preparation.)

³ *Index bibliographicus*. 3rd ed., compiled by T. Besterman, Paris, Unesco, The Hague, F.I.D. 1952. 2 vols. (A new edition is being compiled for Unesco by F.I.D.)

⁴ Lemaître, H. *Vocabularium bibliothecarii, English-French-German*. Begun by H. Lemaître, revised and enlarged by A. Thompson, 1953, 296 pp.

⁵ *International conference on science abstracting; final report*. 1951, 192 pp.

⁶ *Report on the activities and the meeting of the Co-ordinating Committee on abstracting and indexing in the medical and biological sciences*. 1951, 92 pp.

⁷ E.g. *World medical periodicals*. Genève, W.H.O., Paris, Unesco. 1953, 237 pp.

⁸ Holmstrom, J. E. *Bibliography of interlingual scientific and technical dictionaries*. 3rd ed., 1953, 178 pp. (See also: *Scientific and technical translating and other aspects of the language problem*. 1957, 280 pp.)

⁹ *International bibliography of anthropology*. (Entries for 1955 issued experimentally in mimeographed form in 1956. Publication in printed form to begin in 1957.)

¹⁰ *Register of legal documentation in the world*. 1953, 362 pp.

¹¹ *Theses in the social sciences; an international catalogue of unpublished doctorate theses, 1940-1950*. 1952, 236 pp.

¹² *World list of social science periodicals*. 1953, 161 pp.

UNIFORM TITLE

¹³ Houle, C. O., ed. *Libraries in adult and fundamental education*. 1951, 179 pp.

¹⁴ Gardener, F. M. *The Delhi Public Library, an evaluation report*. 1956, 94 pp.

¹⁵ *Handbook on the international exchange of publications*. 2nd ed., 1956, 507 pp.

¹⁶ See: *Trade barriers to knowledge*. New and revised ed., 1955, 368 pp.; also Barker, R. E., *Books for all* (a study of the international book trade). 1956, 102 pp.

Among other publications not referred to in the text are:

Access to books. 1953, 22 pp.

Basic facts and figures. 2nd ed., 1954, 88 pp. (Statistical data on education, libraries, book production, etc.)

Brummel, L. *Union catalogues; their problems and organization*. 1956, 94 pp.

Danton, J. P. *Education for librarianship*. 1949, 98 pp.

McColvin, L. R. *Public library extension*. 1950, 114 pp.

The issue for November/December, 1956 (vol. 10, No. 11-12) of the *Unesco Bulletin for Libraries* was devoted to a survey of Unesco's work in library and documentation development during the first 10 years of its existence.

F. L. K.

Uniform title The standard title by which a work which has appeared in the course of time under various forms of title and in various versions, is most generally known. These circumstances most often occur in the case of anonymous classics and therefore, in the cataloguing of these, in order to avoid the scattering of different editions of the same work throughout the catalogue, it is the general practice to enter these under the uniform title. As an example, *The Arabian nights entertainments*, *Tales from the Arabic*, *The thousand and one nights*, *Stories from the Arabian nights*, etc., would all be entered under the uniform title, *Arabian nights*. Also called 'Conventional title.'

Union catalogue An author or a subject catalogue of all the books, or a selection of books, in a group of libraries, covering books in all fields, or limited by subject or type of material, generally established by co-operative effort (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Union finding list A complete record of the holdings for a given group of libraries of material of a given type, in a certain field, or on a particular subject (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Union shelf list See **CENTRAL SHELF LIST**.

Unit card A basic catalogue card, in the form of a main entry, which when duplicated may be used as a unit for all other entries of that work in the catalogue by the addition of the appropriate heading (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Universal bibliography A bibliography of the world's books. None exists at present, but an attempt has been made by the Institute International de Documentation (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Universal decimal classification—U.D.C. or C.D.U.(Fr.) or D.K.(Ger.) Derived some 60 years ago from the D.C., or *Decimal classification* of Melvil Dewey, and developed by Otlet, La Fontaine, Donker Duyvis and others, the U.D.C. is a comprehensive scheme for classifying every branch of human activity and knowledge. It can be applied to any special subject, and used for all kinds of recorded information (literary, pictorial, etc.) and references thereto, whatever the form of document (e.g. books, papers, letters, samples and specimens) or the method of storage (e.g. shelving, filing). Sponsored by the *Fédération Internationale de Documentation* (F.I.D.) and published in many languages by the respective standardizing bodies or other national U.D.C. organizations, it is continuously being revised and extended by a network of international (F.I.D.) and national committees, under the general supervision of the F.I.D. Central Classification Committee (C.C.C.) which consists of the editors of the full national editions (see *Availability* below). The U.D.C. has recently been adopted by the International Organization for Standardization (I.S.O.) for a Card Index exchange scheme, and is now widely recognized as a standard classification, especially in technical documentation or information centres, scientific and other special libraries.

Principles, structure and notation The U.D.C. is a subject classification in the strictest sense, depending on the analysis of thought content and based on the principle of proceeding from the general to the more particular, so

that related concepts are brought together in more helpful array than can be achieved by alphabetical or other arrangements. The term 'universal' does not, as often supposed, refer to its international or world-wide use, but to the attempt made in U.D.C. to treat all fields of knowledge as a unified pattern of inter-related subjects rather than a chance patchwork of countless special classifications, each more or less independent and self-sufficient, as in so many other general schemes.

The notation consists of Arabic numerals, internationally more familiar in a standard sequence than letters or other symbols, and the whole of knowledge (regarded as unity) is divided into ten domains, preliminary genera-lia and nine main sections, denoted by decimal fractions .0 to .9, each further divided and subdivided to any required degree. These ten domains, indeed the first hundred divisions, are exactly as in D.C. (*q.v.* under *Principles*), but denoted by one- and two-figure numbers without the added noughts. Thus, Social science and its main division Law, denoted by 3 and 34 (not 300 and 340), may be subdivided as follows:

- .3 Social science. Sociology
- .34 Law. Jurisprudence
- .347 Civil law
- .3477 Commercial law
- .34778 Copyright. Performance rights
- .347781 Literary copyright
- .3477815 Kinds of literary works.

For convenience, the initial point is omitted in practice, though it is the fact that the numbers are in reality all decimal fractions less than unity that determines their sequence; on the other hand, 'points' are arbitrarily inserted as a visual aid, usually after every third digit. So the numbers .347 etc., become 347. 347.7. 347.78. 347.781. 347.781.5. Occasional deviation from this 'triplet' pattern, for mnemonic or other reasons, does not alter the order of filing, for which purpose these 'points' are ignored.

Whilst in its main structure, the U.D.C. thus resembles the D.C., far greater flexibility has been attained in its *Auxiliary notation of distinctive signs*, which permit the formation of combined or compound numbers for the widest range of complex notions. The most important auxiliary devices are:

UNIVERSAL DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION

(a) The *colon* (sign of relation), to link two or more main numbers representing independently classifiable concepts, e.g.

- 534 Acoustics
- 781 Musical theory

} giving 534:781 (Physical basis of music)

so that, when separate cards or entries are automatically made for each number separated by colon, any complex subject can be located from the different points of view inherent in it.

(b) Common auxiliaries of Language, Form, Place, Time, etc. (usable with any main number of the whole U.D.C.), e.g.

- 34 = 30 Law, literature in German language
- 16 (03) Logic, encyclopaedia or dictionary

629.12(42) Shipbuilding, in England

531 "16" Mechanics, in the 17th century

(c) Special auxiliaries for elements, details, etc., restricted to a particular subject (and usable only with the corresponding number for that subject), e.g.

669.14-42 Steel, bars and sections

678.632'32'21 Phenolics, phenol-formaldehyde composition

726.03 Church architecture, styles or periods.

Availability of U.D.C. publications All available publications are obtainable from the F.I.D. (6 Willem Witsenplein, The Hague) and from the various national U.D.C. organizations. In Britain, the body concerned is the British Standards Institution, which publishes the English full and abridged editions.

A. Full international editions—

- 1st ed. (French) 1905, Brussels: Inst. Int. Bibliog. [I.L.B.] as 'Manuel du Répertoire Bibliographique Universelle.' Out of print.
- 2nd ed. (French) 1927-33, Brussels: Inst. Int. Bibliog. as 'Classification Décimale Universelle—C.D.U.' Out of print.
- 3rd ed. (German) 1934-53, Berlin: Dtsch. Normenausschuss [D.N.A.] as 'Dezimal-klassifikation,' 10 vols. complete.
- 4th ed. (English) 1943-, London: Brit. Standards Instn. [B.S.I.] as 'B.S.1,000—Universal Decimal Classification—U.D.C.' In progress.
- 5th ed. (French) 1940-, Brussels: Assn. Belge. de Doc. In progress.

UNIVERSAL DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION

6th ed. (Japanese) 1951-, Tokyo: Jap. Soc. for U.D.C. In progress.

7th ed. (Spanish) 1955-, Madrid: Inst. Nac. Racion. Trab. In progress.

8th ed. (German) 1956-, Berlin: Dtsch. Norm. Aussch. [D.N.A.] In prep.

B. *Abridged editions* (of the whole U.D.C.) have been published in Czech, Dutch, Finnish, Italian, Polish, Roumanian, Spanish, Swedish, etc., and Japanese and Portuguese editions are in preparation. The following important abridged editions are available—Abridged English Edition of the U.D.C., B.S. 1,000 A. 2nd ed. (rev.), 1956.

Deutsche Kurzausgabe, Berlin, D.N.A. 3 Auflage, 1955.

German-English-French ed., B.S.I. and D.N.A. 1956.

C. *Special excerpt or selection schedules* have been, or are being, prepared for certain special subject fields, notably:

A.B.C. Abridged Building Classification, C.I.B.-F.I.D. 2nd ed., 1956.

Measurement, testing, etc., Berlin, D.N.A. 1954.

D. *'Extensions and corrections to the U.D.C.'* issued half-yearly and cumulated in three-year series (six issues to each series), provide the essential supplement to the printed editions. For those who wish to participate in, or follow more closely, the newest developments in U.D.C. revision work, there are the so-called P.E.-notes, issued at frequent but irregular intervals with all proposed extensions.

Further reading There have been numerous contributions on the U.D.C. and its application to special subject fields in the *Review of Documentation*, *Journal of Documentation* and elsewhere. The following list gives only some of the more informative general contributions to U.D.C. literature:—

British Standards Institution. *English Abridged Edition*. 2nd ed. (rev.), B.S. 1,000 A. 1956. (General introduction and abridged tables.)

British Standards Institution. *Universal decimal classification*. B.S. 1,000. 1943. (General Introduction, Auxiliaries, Generalia.)

Bradford, S. C. *Documentation*. 2nd ed., London, Crosby Lockwood, 1953.

Donker, D. F. 'U.D.C.: what it is and what it is not.' *Rev. Document.*, 1951, 18, 99-105.

Frank, O. 'Handbuch der Klassifikation.' Berlin: Beuth-Vertrieb. Abt. 1. *Die Dezimalklassifikation*; 2. Aufl. 64 pp. 1946.

Harper, S. F. 'The universal decimal classification.' *Amer. Document.*, 1954, 4, 195-213.

Pollard, A. F. C. *Decimal bibliographical classification of the I.I.B. C.U.P. for Optical Soc.* 1926.

Varossieau, W. 'Use of U.D.C. in selecting data with mechanical appliances.' *Rev. Document.*, 1948, 15, 41-46

G.A.L.

University college libraries Under this heading must be treated a wide variety of types of library, some dating from the 13th century, like Merton College Library, Oxford, and some, like the library of the University College of North Staffordshire, of very recent origin.

The colleges at Oxford and Cambridge had collections of books for the use of Fellows from their earliest days. The regulations relating to their use indicate two quite divergent practices, in some libraries, e.g. New College, Oxford and King's College, Cambridge, the books were distributed annually among the Fellows and the residue chained in a room in the college; in others the best books or copies were chained and the remainder then distributed—this was the custom at Merton College and University College, Oxford. In the 16th and 17th centuries (and even later at Oxford) the library books were normally chained and available for consultation by the Fellows, often in a building newly constructed for the purpose, e.g. Corpus Christi College, Jesus College and Queen's College at Oxford and Trinity Hall and King's College, Cambridge. In more recent times the older collections of printed books and manuscripts have often been divided from modern acquisitions so that at New College and Magdalen College, Oxford for example, to name only two, there are separate libraries, one largely for undergraduates with texts for degree courses, a few periodicals and reference works, and the other consisting of the earlier collections; manuscripts of many Oxford colleges are deposited

in the Bodleian. The older library collections are, of course, immensely rich in manuscripts and early printed books. Most of the Oxford and Cambridge colleges have benefited in great measure from the gifts of their distinguished alumni. Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, received Anglo-Saxon manuscripts from Archbishop Parker and Magdalene College, Cambridge, has Pepys' magnificent library. Some maintain specialist collections founded on earlier gifts, which are in some cases made available to all members of the University: the Gerrans mathematical library at Magdalen College, Oxford, and the law, history and economics collections in the Codrington library of All Souls College, Oxford, are both open to readers from other colleges. The undergraduate libraries in Oxford colleges are normally under the control of a Fellow who delegates the routine work to an assistant who may be a professional librarian. The library services required by the undergraduates are simple and usually adequately provided for: no attempt is made, apart from one or two notable exceptions, to cater for research workers either in books or service. A number of college libraries in the older English Universities have up-to-date catalogues but in Oxford many still use an annotated interleaved copy of the 1843 edition of the Bodleian catalogue of printed books. The manuscripts in Cambridge college libraries have been adequately catalogued by M. R. James and in Oxford libraries less satisfactorily by H. O. Coxe. A few catalogues have been published of the whole or certain portions of the printed book collections in these college libraries: a valuable index to the holdings of books printed before 1641 (both foreign and English) for Oxford college libraries, prepared by Mr. Strickland Gibson and others, has unfortunately not yet been published.

The second type of college library is the collection of books intended for undergraduate and academic staff use in a constituent college of a modern university—University College, King's College, Queen Mary College, Bedford College, Birkbeck College and Royal Holloway College in the University of London, the colleges at Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff and Swansea

which with the Welsh National School of Medicine at Cardiff make up the University of Wales. Trinity College, Dublin, University College, London, and King's College, Newcastle are large enough to be considered with universities, as their problems are comparable. The college libraries at Aberdeen may be considered as representing together the University library, although the college library at Dundee is sufficiently separate in its organization to be included in this second type of college library.

All college libraries of this type have trained staff to control them. Their bookstocks vary from less than 100,000 at Swansea or Birkbeck to more than 200,000 volumes at Bangor and the kinds of services they offer depend mainly on their size. In general they are intended for undergraduate readers but as their bookstocks increase it becomes less necessary for the academic staff to undertake their research elsewhere. Some have outstanding collections in special fields, like the Celtic books at Bangor and Welsh and Border literature in the Salisbury Collection at Cardiff. Whilst the libraries of many of these colleges have long outgrown their original buildings, like Queen Mary College and Cardiff, several have excellent new quarters; Swansea had a new library in 1937 and Birkbeck has a well-appointed library within the recently constructed college. The finances and administration of this and the following type of colleges are similar to those of universities, *viz.* funds are mainly derived from the Treasury and the libraries are under the direction of a library committee through the librarian.

The last type is the library of a college which is a university in embryo: University College, Leicester, and the University College of North Staffordshire at Keele are now the only examples of this kind of college, as others, of which Exeter was the latest, have obtained their Charters. Leicester was founded in 1923 and may expect university status in the very near future; Keele is the most recent foundation having taken the first undergraduates in October, 1950. Both colleges have professional library staffs and provide material for undergraduate courses: their stocks are, for Leicester approximately 100,000,

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LIBRARIES

and for Keele 170,000 volumes with no special collections. The library at Leicester is pleasantly housed in a modern building recently extended to house 150,000 volumes. The University College of North Staffordshire has an ambitious building plan which includes a library but at present the books are housed in Keele Hall. The development of the book collections at Keele in a few years has been most impressive and reflects great credit on the librarian and his staff.

Mention should also be made of certain libraries in colleges which are not connected with universities. Most are concerned with the teaching of a special subject and as a result maintain collections of books relating to that subject. An outstanding example is the library of Selly Oak Colleges, Birmingham, which has a large collection of theological material particularly relating to missions, as well as manuscripts and printed books in Oriental languages.

Most of the libraries mentioned in this article, except for the majority at Oxford and Cambridge, take part in the inter-library loan scheme and provide a large number of important scholarly works through the National Central Library, for readers elsewhere. The contributions they make to the library resources of Great Britain are usually out of all proportion to their size.

A select list of books and articles is given in Woledge, G. and Page, B. S. *A manual of university and college library practice*, 1940, but there is very little literature on library practice as applied specifically to college libraries.

Streeter, B. H. *The chained library*, 1931, contains much information on the early history of the libraries of Oxford and Cambridge, and Clark, J. W. *The care of books*, 2nd ed., 1902, reprinted 1909, and Willis, R. and Clark, J. W. *The architectural history of Cambridge*, 4 vols. 1886, have details of the architecture, furnishings and regulations for use of early college libraries. Gibson, S. *Some Oxford libraries*, 1914, gives in a popular form, some account of the history of certain Oxford libraries.

There are very few separately printed accounts of college libraries: Trinity College, Cambridge, has been treated by Sinker, R. *The library of Trinity College, Cambridge*, 1891,

and the early book collections of Merton College, Oxford by Powicke, F. M. *The medieval books of Merton College*, 1931.

The various histories of Oxford and Cambridge colleges usually deal with the library: in addition to the series of 'College Histories' reference may be made to Jones, W. H. S. *A history of St. Catharine's College, once Catharine Hall, Cambridge*, 1936; Milne, J. G. *Early history of Corpus Christi College, Oxford*, 1946; Hiscock, W. G. *A Christ Church miscellany*, 1946; and Bury, P. *The college of Corpus Christi and the Blessed Virgin Mary: a history from 1822 to 1952*, 1952. The article by Doughty, D. W. 'The library of University College, Dundee: its history, 1883-1953.' *J. Document.*, 1954, 10, 113-22, is a model of a history of a college library in modern times and will, it is hoped, encourage other librarians to prepare similar accounts for other colleges.

K. W. H.

University libraries History Although the University of Oxford owned a number of books, such as those given by Roger de Insula, from the 13th century onwards, the earliest date from which it may be said to have had a library is 1332, when the Regent Masters *vi et armis* invested the books of Bishop Cobham from Oriel College. The books had been left to the University, together with 350 marks in 1327, but the Bishop's debts had been paid by the sale of the books to Adam de Brome who had given them to Oriel. A chaplain librarian was appointed in 1367 and statutes relating to his duties were promulgated in 1412. The library at this time was available only to Masters; undergraduates were not allowed to borrow or even to consult books. From 1435 until his death in 1447 Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, greatly enriched the library and it became necessary for the University's books to be moved from St. Mary's Church to the new room over the Divinity Schools which was completed in 1489. Only a generation or so later, in 1550, the Commissioners of Edward VI in their religious fervour dispersed the books so effectively that only about 30 have survived.

The renaissance of the library was due to the efforts of Sir Thomas Bodley who, together with a number of his friends,

refurnished the library with shelving and books and formally opened it in 1601. Its later history includes the expansion into the 'schools' around the quadrangle adjacent to the Divinity School and assuming responsibility for the Radcliffe Camera and its library, followed by the Radcliffe Science library and the libraries of the Indian Institute and Rhodes House. Storage space was found in cellars under the Sheldonian Theatre, the old Ashmolean Museum and the Examination Schools and in an underground bookstore beneath the lawn of the Radcliffe Camera until the new extension on the corner of Broad Street gave adequate and appropriate accommodation.

The date of the foundation of the Cambridge library is obscure: books belonged to the University from the 13th century but the first library, in the old 'Schools' Quadrangle, was not completed until the middle of the 15th century. As Cambridge had no great benefactor like Bodley its growth was slow and the original rooms sufficed until 1715 when George I presented Dr. John Moore's collection, doubling the number of books in the library and making it necessary to take over the old Senate House and the adjoining 'school' for shelving. A further room was built so that the first floor on all four sides of the Quadrangle was given over to the library. Additional space was furnished by Cockerell's building which was completed in 1842 and by 1908, as at Oxford, the University library had taken over all the rooms of the old 'schools.' The original site was abandoned for a new building in 1934.

The Scottish university libraries had a similar history, expanding slowly in the early years but given a considerable impetus in the 18th century by the quantities of material received in accordance with the copyright privilege. Edinburgh's present building was completed in 1870, the year in which the books of the University of Aberdeen were moved to a new building in King's College; St. Andrews still uses its 1642 building although extensions have been made more recently.

The later universities of Britain were mainly given their Charters during this century although many of them trace their origins to earlier colleges. The library of London University did not come into use

until 1877 although the history of the two college libraries, King's and University College, begin much earlier. Durham (1832), University of Wales (1893), Birmingham (1900), Manchester (1903), Liverpool (1903), Leeds (1904), Sheffield (1905), Belfast (1908), Bristol (1909), Reading (1928), Nottingham (1948), Southampton (1952), Hull (1954) and Exeter (1955) have all made enormous strides during the past 30 years and appropriate buildings to house their valuable and extensive library collections are either already in existence, as at Leeds, Liverpool, London and Manchester, or are planned to be erected in the next few years.

Administration and finance

In all universities, responsibility for the library is vested in a committee. At Oxford the members are known as Curators; at Cambridge, Syndics. In provincial universities the committee is normally composed of professors and lecturers and its size varies considerably between, e.g. 10 at Birmingham and more than 30 at Leeds. In Scotland the library committee is made up of representatives from the non-university governing body. The day-to-day work of the library is administered by a librarian, who in England is usually of professorial rank and a member of the University Senate which determines policy in academic matters. Most libraries have a deputy librarian and a number of sub-librarians or assistant or under-librarians who may be charged with the superintendence of cataloguing, acquisitions and reading rooms or, as at the Bodleian, with special kinds of materials—printed books, Western manuscripts and Oriental books and manuscripts. The qualifications for the senior staff are primarily a university degree with perhaps some research experience; the junior staff is in most libraries advised to prepare for the Library Association examinations. A certain number of technicians may be attached to the library staff as photographers and binders.

The older universities which are well endowed were until recently self-sufficient for their finance but even they are now assisted by grants from the Treasury. Each university receives an annual grant based on an estimate made every five years and

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

allocated by the University Grants Committee. The proportion of the total sum available to a university spent on libraries will vary according to the size of the university and to other factors but should certainly not be lower than four per cent. The amount set aside by the university for library purposes for the year is divided by the librarian or his committee into separate funds for periodicals, binding and general purposes and the remainder usually apportioned to various subject fields covered by the curriculum.

The expenditure on subjects in some universities is controlled by Book Selection committees and in others by Departments or Faculties, usually in co-operation with the librarian. These methods enable the library stocks to grow reasonably equitably within the subjects taught in the university with careful attention paid to the needs both of the undergraduate and of the research student.

Services

The services provided by university libraries are determined by the needs of the two main types of readers within the university, the undergraduate and the research worker, who might be a post-graduate student preparing for a further degree or a member of the academic staff. The Bodleian and the University Library at Cambridge are reference libraries of national importance and whilst they provide reading rooms for undergraduates they rely largely on the college libraries to make books available for loans to students. The Scottish and modern English universities allow books to be borrowed, although reserving a number of reference works for consultation in the library only. These libraries, with certain exceptions, supplement their own holdings by drawing on books in other libraries through regional and national systems of inter-library lending: smaller libraries make extensive use of these systems whilst the larger ones make a very substantial contribution to the co-operative organizations by lending each year more than twice as many books as they borrow.

In most universities the important catalogue of printed books is arranged by author; some libraries, like the Bodleian, have no subject

catalogue, others retain a class catalogue based on the classification scheme.

The rules used are usually based on the Anglo-American Code with local variations, although the Bodleian uses its own system and the rules in use at Liverpool, University College, London, and Leeds have clearly been influenced by those of the British Museum. Manuscripts, Oriental printed books and other material are entered in separate sequences and in many cases the catalogues are printed.

No single method of recording the library's holdings is in universal use. In more spacious days catalogues could be printed and published: the Bodleian issued several, the latest in 1845 and Edinburgh published a very useful catalogue between 1918 and 1923. At Oxford the current catalogue consists of printed slips pasted into large sheaf holders, a method which has not found much favour outside the older English universities. A sheaf catalogue of typed slips is used at Leeds and typed or multilithed cards are in common use.

It is extremely difficult to make a general statement about the arrangement of books on the shelves as the order of books in stacks may, as in the Bodleian, be different from that in reading rooms. A number of universities have prepared their own systems: the Bodleian has a numerical scheme for stack books based on the invention of E. W. B. Nicholson and the Brotherton Library at Leeds has main named subject divisions with letter and number subdivisions, a system further developed at University College London. The Dewey classification scheme is in use at Newcastle and that of the Library of Congress at Birmingham, Nottingham and Southampton.

Certain services ancillary to the provision of books have become established practice in most university libraries.

Photographic studios prepare photostats, microfilms, slides or other photocopies for the use of students both within and outside the university: the studios are usually, but not always, under the administration of the librarian, who may also have responsibility for film services in general. Many university libraries provide facilities for translations to be made by a panel of translators. Microfilm

and microprint readers are part of the normal equipment of all university libraries.

The largest libraries have published catalogues of some of their holdings, reproductions of manuscripts, and histories of their collections: the smaller libraries issue annual reports and printed short introductions to the use of the library for distribution to readers. These guides are, in most universities, supplemented by instruction to undergraduates given by the library staff. At Oxford lectures to post-graduate students are given by the librarian and other library officers on the special collections of the Bodleian.

Book collections and catalogues

It has been said that almost any printed or manuscript material may be needed for research and that therefore it would be appropriate for every university to collect anything and everything as it might one day be useful. The only library in Britain which attempts to preserve all books and periodicals currently published in this country is the British Museum, for the other copyright libraries have for years found it necessary for reasons of space and the saving of labour to make some selection from the flood of printed material.

Whilst the responsibility involved in accepting most current publications creates many problems, a large number of copyright accessions have greatly enriched the collections of the Bodleian and Cambridge University Library. Sir Thomas Bodley, at the suggestion of his librarian, James, obtained in 1610 the first agreement with the Stationer's Company by which members of the company granted one perfect copy of every book printed by them. In 1662 this agreement became a statutory obligation upon the Stationers' Company to provide a copy of each book printed by them not only to the Bodleian but also to Cambridge and to the Royal Library. Later enactments continued the agreement and in 1709 extended the number of receiving libraries, in addition to the original three beneficiaries, to the four universities in Scotland, the library of Sion College and the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh. Whilst the privilege to the last-named, now the National Library of Scotland, has continued to the present, it was

commuted for an annual monetary grant by the Scottish Universities and by Sion College in 1836.

In addition to the valuable material obtained by copyright, most of the older universities have built up rich collections by gift and purchase. Benefactors to the Bodleian include Archbishop Laud, John Selden, Thomas Tanner, Richard Rawlinson, Richard Gough and Francis Douce, whilst some of the most important purchases were those of the Canonici collection of manuscripts and the Oppenheimer Library of Hebrew works. Cambridge was not quite so fortunate in its donors. Two of the most important gifts were the library of Dr. John Moore, Bishop of Ely given by George I and Lord Acton's history collection presented by Viscount Morley.

The Scottish universities had many important benefactions—the great Hamilton, Hunterian and Ferguson collections at Glasgow; the William Drummond and Halliwell-Phillipps collection and the Laing Charters and Manuscripts at Edinburgh; similarly valuable collections are at St. Andrews and Aberdeen.

The more recently founded universities have not been able to acquire anything like the same proportion of early printed books and manuscripts as Oxford and Cambridge and the Scottish universities, but examination of the figures given below for bookstocks will reveal that their growth has nonetheless been rapid and for recent material Manchester, Leeds and Birmingham compare favourably with the older foundations. A few provincial university libraries have received outstanding bequests and donations—the Brotherton Collection at Leeds; the Goldsmiths' Company's library at London and the Christie collection at Manchester. The University Grants Committee's report for 1953-54 shows the following bookstocks of the larger libraries:

London (including Colleges and Schools)	2,651,600
Oxford	2,444,648
Cambridge	2,092,800
Edinburgh	625,000
St. Andrews	519,500
Manchester	481,800
Birmingham	445,900

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Glasgow	426,800
Leeds	379,300
Aberdeen	324,900
Liverpool	322,800

Buildings

Little new library building has been possible in universities in this country since 1939. At that date the recently erected libraries were those at King's College, Newcastle, the Brotherton Library at Leeds, the Harold Cohen Library at Liverpool, the Bodleian Extension at Oxford and the University Library at Cambridge. Most of the libraries of other universities were housed in old premises, many of which, like those at Birmingham were never designed for library purposes, or, like the library at Sheffield, hopelessly inadequate and long out-dated. The buildings erected in Britain during this century have mostly provided for one large reading room for undergraduates with open access to reading room books and sometimes with accommodation for research workers in the stack. This is the pattern of organization at Newcastle, Leeds, Cambridge and Liverpool: the Harold Cohen library has several reading rooms. The same type of arrangement will apparently also be observed in the new library in course of construction at Sheffield. In view of the large number of undergraduates at universities it is becoming increasingly necessary to provide more than one reading room for students. At Oxford and Cambridge many Departments have separate autonomous collections of books for use in the Department or Faculty only. In provincial universities, where there is only one collection of books, there has been a tendency towards decentralization by the setting up of departmental libraries which are merely sections of the university library.

This unfortunate movement can best be counteracted by placing the main library in the centre of the university and providing several rooms arranged by School or Faculty. The library of University College, London, was the first to be designed in accordance with this view; Manchester, with its new extension, has a similar orientation and Oxford has now been able to organize subject reading rooms, mainly intended for research workers, in the old building. The

new library at Birmingham will have three, and eventually four or five, reading rooms for the undergraduates in different Faculties and Schools with carrels in the stack for research students and academic staff.

Only the Bodleian has so far attempted to provide on the pattern of Harvard undergraduate accommodation quite separate from research reading rooms, largely perhaps because of the expense in duplicating large numbers of texts, but the expected growth of the undergraduate population during the next 10 years may necessitate the adoption of this principle by other libraries.

For the period before 1940 the bibliographies in Woledge, G. and Page, B. S. *A manual of university and college library practice*, 1940 are adequate: a new edition by K. Garside and R. O. MacKenna is in course of preparation. The latest work on the subject, Wilson, L. R. and Tauber, M. F. *The university library*, 2nd ed., 1956, is largely devoted to American practice. Notes on British university libraries are published periodically in the *Libr. Ass. Rec.* and annual reviews were published until 1950 in the *Year's work in librarianship*. Recent accounts of individual libraries include—

- Ardagh, P. 'The University Library of St. Andrews.' *Librarian*, 1952, 41, 199.
- Butcher, D. W. 'The Departmental libraries of the University of Cambridge.' *J. Document.*, 1951, 7, 221.
- Craster, Sir Edmund. *History of the Bodleian library, 1845-1945*. 1952.
- Kent, F. L. 'The University of Bristol library.' *J. Document.*, 1949, 5, 131.
- Offor, R. *A descriptive guide to the libraries of the University of Leeds*, 1947, and *Supplement*, 1949.
- Page, B. S. 'The facilities of the Leeds university libraries for the study of technology.' *Aslib Proc.*, 1951, 3, 131.
- Shimmin, A. N. 'The Library and the Faculty of Arts,' in *The university of Leeds; the first half-century*. 1954, 117.
- Vincent, E. W. and Hinton, P. 'The university library,' in *The university of Birmingham: its history and significance*. 1947, 180.

Other publications for consultation include—
Bonser, W. 'Essentials in the planning and

- equipment of a university library.' *J. Document.*, 1946-47, 2, 76.
- Garside, K. 'The basic principles of the new library classification at University College, London.' *J. Document.*, 1954, 10, 169.
- Mortimer, R. S. 'Cataloguing in university libraries,' in *Cataloguing principles and practice: an inquiry*. Ed. M. Piggott, 1954, 111.
- MacKenna, R. O. 'Instruction in the use of libraries: a university library problem.' *J. Document.*, 1955, 11, 65.
- Povey, K. 'The planning of university and college libraries.' *J. Document.*, 1946-47, 2, 60.

K. W. H.

Unpaged Pages of a book which have not been given individual page numbers. Such unpaginated matter may be shown in the collation section of a catalogue entry by a plus sign

(+) or, more usually, the number of such pages is counted and the total given within brackets.

Unsewn A method of bookbinding from which sewing is omitted. The folds of the sections are cut off, thus reducing the book to a collection of single leaves; these single leaves are held together at the binding edge by adhesive. The main characteristics of unsewn binding are that the book is no stronger than the weakest adhesive link between any two adjacent leaves, and consequently the insecure attachment of the book into the case.

Upper case 1. The top case of a pair of type cases containing the capitals and small capitals. 2. That part of the fount containing these letters. 3. A direction to the printer to use these letters.

V

Van Gelder paper A brand of fine paper produced in Holland. Used principally for fine editions and also in an antique finish, by artists for drawings, water colours and sketches. Also called Dutch Paper.

Variorum edition 1. An edition that contains notes of several editors and commentators. From the Latin *cum notis variorum*. 2. An edition of a publication containing variant readings, or versions of the text (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Vellum Calf-skin prepared for writing by the removal of fat and hair in lime water and then by polishing. Uterine vellum used for the finest manuscripts is reputed to be made from the skin of unborn or newly born calves, and does not show the characteristic difference between the hair side and the inner side of the skin.

Ventilation See HEATING; VENTILATION; AIR-CONDITIONING.

Vernacular The language of a country. When it is directed that a name shall be given in the vernacular, it means the form customary in the country concerned (*Libr. Gloss.*).

Verso The reverse or back of a leaf, usually bearing even-numbered pages of a book. Also, the back of a separate printed sheet.

Vertical file 1. A case of drawers in which material may be filed vertically. 2. A collection of pamphlets, clippings and similar material arranged for ready reference upright in a drawer, box or suitable case (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Vignette 1. In manuscripts an ornamental design of vine tendrils around an initial letter. 2. A small engraving perhaps without a definite border and with its edges shading gradually, inserted on the title-page. Loosely applied to any ornament on a title-page or to a chapter head or tail. Not to be confused with type ornaments or printer's devices.

Virgo, Charles George First Librarian of Bradford from 1872-84, is chiefly noted as the originator in the early 1870's of a card charging system for use in closed access libraries akin to that attributed to Nina Browne but, as practised in Bradford, involving the use of two borrower's tickets. Also produced in 1878 perhaps the first instance of a printed union catalogue of a system of lending libraries, and, independently of the experiments of Dr. Tyler at Bethnal Green, devised an early form of hinged shelving for use in temporary library centres, consisting of a cupboard with hinged shelves facing inward and swung out for public use. Subsequently appointed curator of Queen's Park Museum, Manchester. (Charging system described in *Libr. World*, 1907, 10, 188-94, and shelving in Burgoyne, *Library construction*, 1897.)

G.J.

Visible index 1. A series of metal frames or panels for holding card records so that a group of cards can be seen at one time. Also called 'visible file.' 2. A record kept in such a device, as a list of serials, with or without holdings (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Vollans report See REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS.

Volume Latin *volumen*, a thing rolled up; from *volvere*, to roll. *Evolvere*, to unroll, often used in the sense to read.

1. A book distinguished from other books or from other parts of the same work by having its own title-page and usually independent pagination. 2. Whatever is contained in one binding, whether this be the single unit as originally issued or the result of binding several units together after issue.

Volume number 1. A number assigned to a volume of a serial, a set or a series. 2. A number added to a book number to distinguish one volume from another of the same work (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Volume signature The number of the volume, or a letter indicating its sequence (as 'a,' 'b,' etc.) given on the same line as the signature, but towards the inner margin of the first leaf of a gathering (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Volumen The papyrus roll used in ancient Egypt, Greece and Rome, the text being written in columns on one side in ink with a reed pen. The lines running parallel with the length of the roll. The first and last sheets of the papyrus were probably rolled round a stick which had knobbed ends; the evidence of this is only literary, none having survived. The rolls were kept in boxes or on shelves and for purpose of identification when in this position had a vellum label attached to the end

of the roll. This label bore the title of the work, and was sometimes coloured. A wooden case (*manuale*) was sometimes used to protect the end of the rolls from being frayed.

Voluminous author A term adopted by cataloguers to describe an author under whose name many titles are entered, often extended to include also persons who are the subject of many biographies and the like. Voluminous authors pose the problem of sub-arranging the numerous entries under one heading, the most generally-used basic arrangement being as follows—

1. Collected works.
2. Selections.
3. Single works in alphabetical order of title or uniform title.

W

Walker, Sir Emery (1851-1933). Engraver and printer, the moving spirit in the modern private press movement in England. Associated with William Morris in the Kelmscott Press, with T. J. Cobden-Sanderson in the Doves Press (1900), with the Cuala Press about 1902, and, in 1917 and again in 1930, with Bruce Rogers.

Wall shelving Single-sided book-cases either built in as an architectural feature or placed against a wall.

Washing In photographic processing negatives and prints are washed in water after fixing in order to remove any remaining developer or fixing solution. To ensure permanence of photocopies washing should be thorough.

Water-leaf Hand-made paper in its initial stage of manufacture, consisting of pulp spread and evened by shaking in the hand mould, and pressed between felts; not yet sized.

Watermark A design impressed into sheets of paper during manufacture which serves to identify the products of the various paper mills. In hand-made paper the watermark wire is woven around the chain and laid wires; in machine made pages it is woven on to the dandy roll.

Weare, William (b. 1874). Librarian in charge of various East London district libraries, published in 1911 *Public library reform*, a book ill-received in the library press because of its unqualified advocacy of the transference of municipal libraries to a state Department of Public Libraries, Museums and Art Galleries, and attempted to form a Municipal Public Library Reform League. Subsequently left the library profession for better paid employment. Believed drowned near Weybridge after the 1914-18 War.

G.J.

Web A roll of paper which passes continuously through a printing press; or the form in which paper comes from the machine.

Whatman paper A well-known brand of fine grade English hand-made drawing paper, sometimes used in limited editions or privately printed books. Originally, fine drawing papers made by J. Whatman (1741-98) from c. 1770 near Maidstone. Extended to hand-made ledger and writing papers; but since 1937 these are mostly made on a mould machine. The original firm is now W. & R. Balston, Ltd.

White edges Uncoloured edges of books.

White letter Roman type as opposed to gothic.

White line A technique of wood engraving in which the design is cut into the block instead of the background being removed, thus appearing white when the block is inked and printed.

White out To space out type-matter as in advertisement work.

Whole bound See FULL BINDING.

Whole number The number assigned by a publisher to an issue of a periodical or other serial counting from beginning of the publication, in distinction from numbers assigned for volume and number of for series and volume (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Wicket A feature of 'safeguarded open-access' libraries. The hinged gates fixed at both sides of the staff enclosure to control the entrance and exit of readers, usually operated by treadle or similar device by the staff.

Widow A short single line at the top of a page or column, usually the last line of a paragraph. To be avoided in good typography.

Winded The separation of printed sheets so that they will be ventilated by air.

Window copy Printed pages pasted on sheets of paper so that both sides of the text remain visible.

Wire mark The side of the sheet next the wire has the characteristic mark of close parallel lines or a diamond shaped mesh. Especially visible when the paper is held against the light.

Withdrawal The process of removing from library records all entries for a book no longer in the library.

Withdrawal record A record of all books officially removed from a library collection. Also 'withdrawals register.'

Wood block A block of wood, usually type height, cut or engraved with a design for printing.

Wood pulp A fibrous pulp made from wood, the basic material of paper. Mechanical wood pulp or groundwood from which newsprint is made and chemical pulp produced by various methods, as the sulphite, soda and sulphate processes for book papers.

Woodcut A method of cutting a design in relief on a wood block along the grain, with knives and gouges (as distinct from the use of engravers tools in wood engraving) so that printing may be done simultaneously with other relief material such as type. The background parts which are not required to print are cut away, and the lines in relief will yield a black print.

Word by word filing One of the two basic methods of arranging in alphabetical order entries in a list, catalogue or bibliography. The method is also called 'Nothing before something,' from the principle of regarding the space separating the first word from subsequent words in a compound or phrase

heading as 'nothing.' Such a word files before a longer word beginning with the same letters, the additional letters in the longer word being 'something.'

For example—

Green acres
Green fields
Green Howards
Greenbanks
Greenford
Greenshank.

The same entries filed by the alternative letter by letter method would appear as follows—

Green acres
Greenbanks
Green fields
Greenford
Green Howards
Greenshank.

Work slip See PROCESS SLIP.

Worm-bore A hole or a series of holes through a book, made by a bookworm. A book in this condition is said to be 'wormed.'

Wove Paper made on a machine in which the web is a woven mesh as distinct from laid paper which is made in moulds of which the base is of wires laid at 90 degrees to each other. Note that the dandy roll may impress the appearance of laid paper on to 'wove' papers.

Wrapper 1. An original paper binding. 2. A jacket.

Wright report See REGIONAL LIBRARY SYSTEMS.

Wrong fount An error in composition caused by faulty distribution of type so that wrong characters are put in the compositor's case, causing him unconsciously to include them as his work proceeds.

X

Xerography A dry photographic method of documentary reproduction which is an electrical process not making use of sensitized paper. A document is photographed, using a special camera and plate. The plate is electrostatically charged in a processer beforehand. On exposure the plate is discharged except at those parts on which the image was projected. A resinous powder bearing an opposite charge to the plate is then spread over the surface, and the powder adheres to the mirror-image of the original document. When the plate is now placed in contact with a sheet of paper and put in a processer where it is charged again, the resinous powder is transferred electrostatically to the paper. Finally, the fixing of the image is carried out by heating the paper to a temperature which

melts the resin, thus forming a permanent image. The process was invented by C. F. Carlson in 1938, but was not placed on the market until 1950.

U.S. Patent 2,297,691, 1942; 2,357,809, 1944.
Battelle Tech. Rev., 1953, 2, 118-22.

Reid, W. T. 'Xerography—from fable to fact.'
Coll. Res. Libr., 1954, 15, 57-60.

Dawson, J. M. 'Xerography in card reproduction.' *Libr. J.*, 1953, 78, 1,095-8.

Lewis, C. *Library use of Xerography*.

Xylography Printing from wood blocks rather than movable type (*see also* BLOCK BOOKS).

Xylotype Wood engraving, or a print from a wood engraving.

Y

Year-book 1. An annual volume of current information in descriptive and/or statistical form, sometimes limited to a special field. 2. One of a series of annual reports of cases judged in early English law courts (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

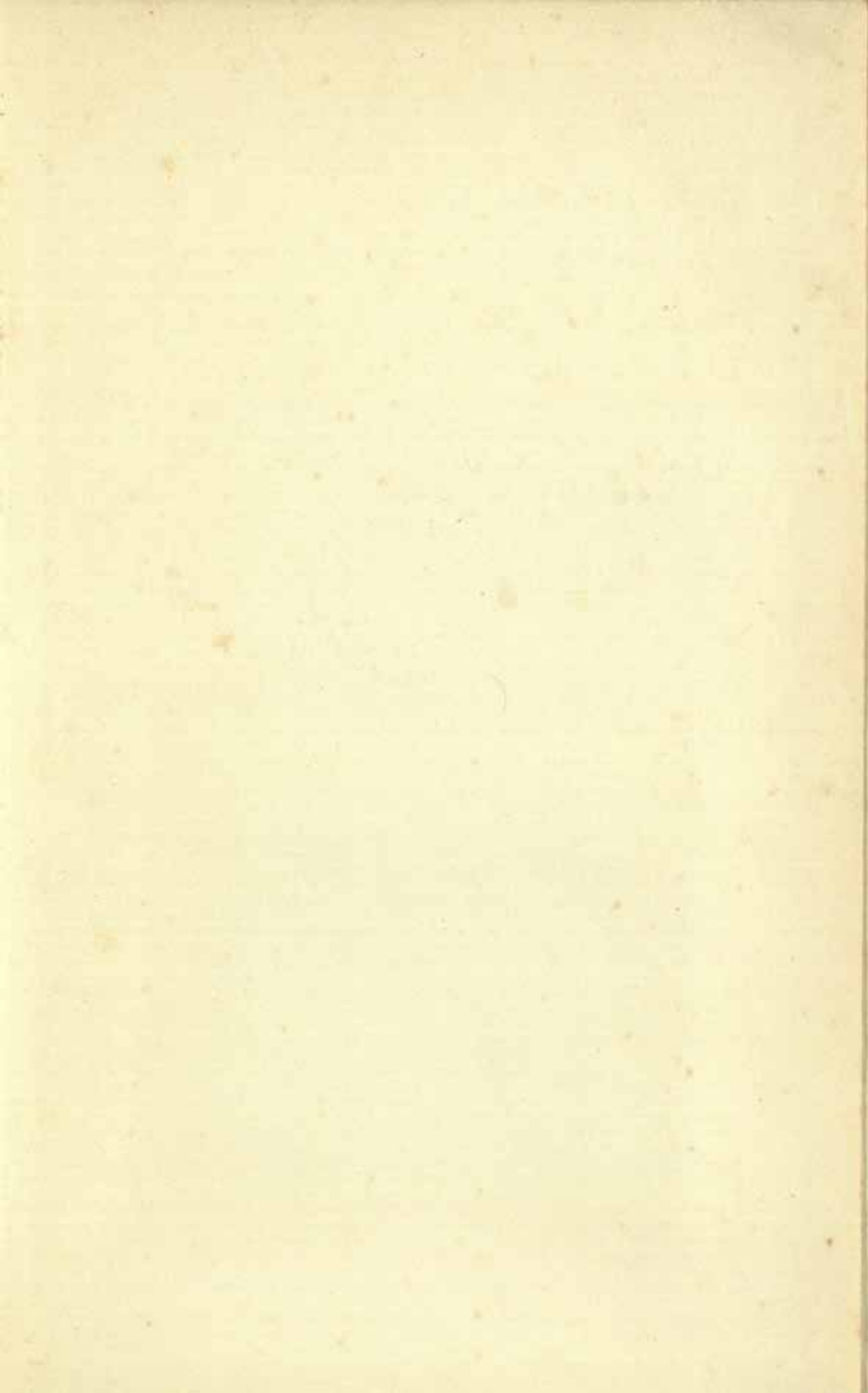
Yellowback A popular cheap novel; so called from the former practice, especially in England, of binding such books in yellow board or paper covers (*A.L.A. Gloss.*).

Z

Zaehnsdorf, Joseph (1816-86). A famous binder who came from Austria to London in 1837, opening his own shop in 1845. He was a notable craftsman both as forwarder and finisher. His son, Joseph William Zaehnsdorf (1853-1930), who succeeded him in business, published *The art of bookbinding* (1880).

Zinc etching A photomechanical process of producing a line engraving on a metal plate, usually zinc, by etching with acid. Also called zinco or zincograph.





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